

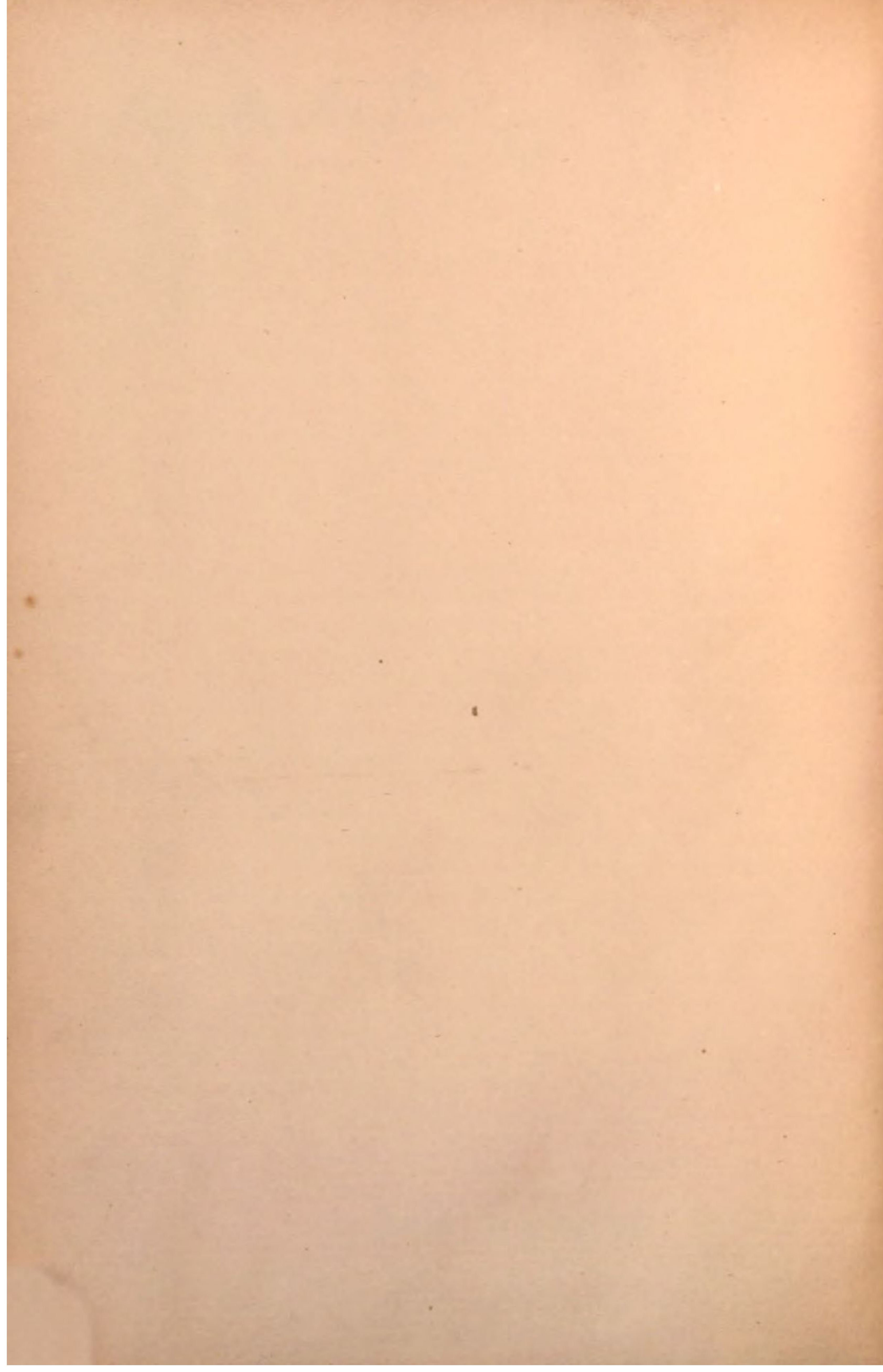




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CENTRAL AMERICAN

MEMORIAL

CHAPTER IV

THE
MEMORIAL
TO THE
NATIONAL

BOOK VI

CENTRAL AMERICA

GUATEMALA

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BOOK VI.

CENTRAL AMERICA;

OR,

GUATEMALA.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION—CONFIGURATION—CLIMATE—POPULATION—MINERALS—FORESTS—WILD ANIMALS—LAKES—AND RIVERS.

CENTRAL AMERICA, Guatemala, or Guatimala, extends from about 8 deg to 18 deg. north latitude, and between 82 deg. 30 min. and 94 deg. west longitude, between Cape Gracios à Dios, on the Caribbean Sea, and Point Cosiguina, in the Pacific Ocean.

The area, estimated by Humboldt in 1822, was about 125,550 square miles. This calculation was made according to the then existing charts, which were discovered afterwards, by the surveys directed by the British Admiralty, to have laid down the east coast south of Cape Gracios à Dios more than thirty miles too far east. The area, therefore, may be more properly estimated at about 120,000 square miles: nearly equal to that of the United Kingdom. This area includes the Mosquito Territory, which we have described in the last book.

On the north it is bounded by the States of Mexico and Belize, on the south-eastern by New Granada, on the east by the Atlantic, and on the west by the Pacific.

This extensive region is remarkably irregular in its configuration. Mountains, elevated plains, ravines, lakes, rivers, bays, harbours, lagoons, forests, and low lands, are its predominating features.

There are numerous fertile valleys, and the plateaux or table-lands, which are, however, but imperfectly known, are described as generally fertile. The mountain elevations rise from 5000 to 13,000 feet above the sea. Many of them if not the whole, are of volcanic formation. The country has been frequently disturbed by earthquakes.

Its soil, its climate, and its productions, are as varied as its configuration. Its lowlands, both on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, are considered remarkably unhealthy.

Climate.—The whole of Central America is situated between the tropics; but the temperature and salubrity of its climate are as variable as are the diversities

of its abrupt elevations, mountains, plateaux, ravines, sands, low districts, lakes, and forests.

It freezes sometimes during the night on the highest part of the table lands, in November, December, and January. At the city of Guatemala, situated in the mean height of the table land (4961 feet above the sea), the dry season begins towards the close of the month of October, and lasts till the end of May: during which time only a few showers occasionally fall. In the beginning of June thunder storms become frequent, and are followed by heavy rains. From six o'clock in the morning till three or four o'clock in the afternoon, the sky is generally without clouds, and the air clear and refreshing. About the middle of October the north winds blow, and the rains cease. The absence of either the windy or rainy seasons is accompanied by thunder; and, it is said, with slight shocks of earthquake. In March and April the thermometer sometimes rises to 86 deg. It generally ranges between 74 deg. and 82 deg. in the middle of the day. In December and January, when the north winds sometimes blow with great force, the thermometer varies between 68 deg. and 72 deg. During the summer heat it rises at about seven o'clock in the morning to between 60 deg. and 67 deg., and in the evening at the same hour, to 67 deg. and 68 deg; in winter it falls in the morning to 60 deg. and 58 deg., and sometimes even to 56 deg., but in the evening only to between 60 deg. and 64 deg. Towards the end of the dry season the trees shed their leaves, and in many places vegetation appears suspended. The region in which the capital stands, is considered healthy; *goîtres* are frequent in the high and mountain districts, especially among the mixed races.

On the sea-coast of the Pacific, the seasons correspond with those of the table lands, but the temperature is much hotter. It is said that the Pacific shores are healthy, although they are almost entirely covered with woods. This salubrity is, however, not without exceptional districts.

The climate of the low eastern coasts is remarkably hot, and the seasons irregular. Below the table land it rains for a longer period than on the western shores,—but the rains are not generally heavy. The rains and hot temperature render the climate in many parts unhealthy.

POPULATION.—The inhabitants of Central America comprise three classes—whites, or creoles of Spanish race, mestizos, or the offspring of whites and Indians, and aboriginal natives. There are but few negroes or Zamboes. In the department of Guatemala the Indian inhabitants are said to constitute the great majority of the people: in Costa Rica those of European race predominate; and in the three other departments the mestizos, mixed with a few mulattoes prevail. Haefkens estimates the whole population at one million and a half, which he distributed as follows, viz.;—of European races, 125,000; mixed races, 500,000; Indians 875,000; total 1,500,000. But it is doubtful whether any approximate estimate can be formed. Many parts, as the

inland parts of the Mosquito Territory, the region bounding Yucatan, and part of Honduras, are very little known.

The whites have monopolised nearly all the offices and dignities in the state, except under Carera, the present Indian ruler of the province of Guatemala. The handicraftsmen, shopkeepers, and small tradesmen generally, are chiefly of mixed races. The aborigines are the principal inhabitants of the tablelands.

MINERALS.—Gold, silver, and iron mines are worked; lead and mercury have been found. The most important gold and silver mines are those of Costa Rica, at Del Aquacate, and in Honduras, in Mount Merendon, between Chiquimula and the northern shores, and at Del Corpus and Tabanco. The iron mines are situated near Santa Anna, in Salvador 75,000 tons were said to have been produced annually; but these mines are nearly altogether, like most branches of industry, now neglected. This has been the natural consequence of the many revolutions and distractions which have disturbed the peace of the country. In Honduras, jasper and marble are worked. Brimstone is collected near the volcano of Quezaltenango. There are many salt springs, and salt is collected on the banks of some lagoons, as well as on the shore of the Pacific, in such quantities so as to constitute an article of commerce.

FORESTS.—Dense forests of gigantic trees cover a great part of Central America. Among the most valuable products of these forests are mahogany, pimento, sarsaparilla, vanilla, and the black or Peruvian Balsam; the latter, only found in the district of Salvador, besides other drugs and gums; also the Brazil or Nicaragua wood, and many other beautiful and useful woods.

The low country between the Pacific and the table lands and mountains, varies in breadth from thirty to fifty miles. A forest which covers all the plain, is remarkable for magnificent trees; some of them from thirty to thirty-five feet in circumference, and eighty or ninety feet in height: numerous creepers wind round their trunks to the height of forty or fifty feet. These forests consist chiefly of mahogany, cedar, Brazil, guaiacum, Santa Maria, and other useful woods: vanilla, sarsaparilla, and other medicinal plants abound.

WILD ANIMALS.—The wild animals, reptiles, and birds common to tropical South America are found in Central America. Fish abound in the rivers and lakes, and along the shores of the east and west coasts. Alligators are also numerous in the Usumasinta and numerous rivers.

LAKEs.—Exclusive of the Great Lake of Nicaragua, there are many others; chiefly near the Pacific, and there are several lagoons, with sheltered entrances on the shores of the Caribbean Sea. Caratasca Lagoon is forty miles long and more than ten broad. These lagoons are all separated from the sea by narrow and sandy ridges.

The Lake of Nicaragua is described by Juarros as—

“Being more than 180 miles long from west to east, and nearly 100 broad from north to south, having almost everywhere a depth of ten fathoms, with a muddy bottom, except along the shore, where there is clean sand. The city of Nicaragua is supplied with water from the lake, which also furnishes an inexhaustible abundance of fine fish. It is rendered extremely picturesque, by the numerous small islands with which the surface is studded; these are all uncultivated, except Ometep, which is inhabited. On this there is a lofty mountain of a conical shape, that is an active volcano, and frequently emits both flames and smoke. The lake itself is liable to tempestuous agitations, when the waves rise with violence, as they do in the open sea, under the impetus of a heavy gale. Although a great number of rivers fall into this basin, and the River St. Juan is the only visible outlet, yet it is remarked as an extraordinary phenomenon, that there is no indication at any time of increase or decrease of the waters. On the north, the district of Matagalpa, and many large farms for breeding cattle, border the lake; on the south are the city of Granada, and the town of Nicaragua; on the east the River St. Juan communicates with the Atlantic; and on the west is the Lake of Managua, or Leon, which extends upwards of fifty miles in length, by nearly thirty in breadth, and is connected by a canal with the Nicaragua.”

These two lakes are described by Juarros as much larger than they are by recent accounts.—(See account of the Peninsula of Nicaragua hereafter.)

The Lake of Atitlan, according to Juarros, is one of the most remarkable in the kingdom. It is about twenty-four miles from east to west, and ten from north to south, entirely surrounded by rocks and mountains. There is little gradation of depth from its shores, and the bottom has not been found with a line of 300 fathoms. It receives several rivers, and all the waters that descend from the mountains, but there is no known channel by which this great body is carried off. The only fish caught in it are crabs, and a species of very small fish. These are in such countless myriads, that the inhabitants of the surrounding villages carry on a considerable fishing for them.

From the ignorance which still prevails in regard to the geography and geology of this district, it is probable that Juarros' account of its fathomless depth, and the absence of any visible outlet, are mere assumptions. Mr. Stephens denies the assertion of the coldness of its water. The south and mountain regions of it are subject to showers and squalls; and this was also observed by Mr. Stephens.

“At that hour of the day, as we understood to be the case always at that season of the year, heavy clouds were hanging over the mountains and volcanoes, and the lake was violently agitated by a strong southwest wind; as our guide said, ‘*la laguna es muy brava.*’”

The configuration of the country succeeding Lake Atitlan, is of the most varied and romantic character. A lofty table of land and mountains almost surround this lake.

“From a height of 3000 or 4000 feet,” Mr. Stephens says, “we looked down upon a surface shining like a sheet of molten silver, enclosed by rocks and mountains of every form, some barren, and some covered with verdure, rising from 500 to 5000 feet in height. Opposite, down on the borders of the lake, and apparently inaccessible by land, was the town of Santiago Atitlan, between two immense volcanoes 8000 or 10,000 feet high. Further on was another volcano, and further still another, more lofty than all, with its summit buried in clouds. We stopped and watched the fleecy clouds of

vapour, rising from the bottom, moving up the mountains and the sides of the volcanoes."

Along the slopes leading down to the lake, the temperature grows hotter as the path descends. Mr. Stephens describes it as a tropical garden. Above, on the plateau, the climate was more like that of Central Europe than that of the tropics. Between the forest trees and the lake there flourished :

"Sapotes, jacotes, aguacates, manzanas, pine-apples, oranges, and lemons ; the best fruits of Central America grew in profusion, and aloes grew thirty to thirty-five feet high, and twelve and fourteen inches thick, cultivated in rows, to be used for thatching miserable Indian huts. We came down to the lake at some hot springs, so near the edge that the waves ran over the spring, the former being very hot, and the latter cold."

The celebrated Lake Itza, or Peten, lies between Verapaz, Chiapa, and Yucatan. It is described, by Juarros, as of an oblong figure and about twenty-six leagues in circumference: in some parts there are thirty fathoms depth, and in others still more ; the water is pure, and abounds with excellent fish. The Peten, or Great Island, is about two leagues from the shore, and was the chief place of the Itzax Indians ; it is steep and lofty, and on the summit there is a plain nearly a quarter of a league in diameter, where the Indians and their king, *Canek*, resided. In 1698 a garrison was established in this place. Four other smaller islands lie at short distances from the principal one. All these five islands, the whole of the eastern side of the lake, and the neighbouring range of mountains, were formerly thickly peopled by the Itzax nations.

The Lake of Guixa, near the boundary-line between the States of Salvador and Guatemala, is more than twenty miles long, and three broad in the widest part: it abounds with fish, and forms the source of the Lempa. It is said to be connected with another lake, that of Metapa, by a subterraneous channel.

Rivers.—The rivers of Central America are numerous ; but rapid, and of comparatively inferior magnitude. Those flowing into the Pacific have rarely their sources more than sixty miles from the sea. The Lempa rises on the western extremity of the table-land, and flows from west to east, receiving in its course a river from the Lake of Guixa, and a small stream which passes the town of St. Salvador. The Lempa thence flows south, and rapidly to the Pacific. It is said not to be navigable, and has a bar at its mouth. The Rio Choluteca which falls into the Bay of Conchagua draining a narrow valley, is next in size to the Lempa.

The Patook flows into the Caribbean Sea, and is said to bring down gold with its stream from the hills. There are rapids called *Los Chiflones*, from which to its mouth the river is said to be navigable for large river barges, and still higher for canoes.

The Rio Tinto flows for about 200 miles, and falls into the sea east of Cape Cameron, but its course is little known.

The Rio Wanks, or Rio de Segovia, rises towards the southern extremity of

the table-land, and flows into the sea near Cape Gracios à Dios, but the greater part of its course lies in the plain of Mosquitos. Bluefields River appears to rise on the southern extremity of the table-land, and falls into Mosquito Bay near 12 deg. north latitude.—(*See account of the Mosquito Shore.*)

Along the high coast, between Cape Cameron and the bottom of the Bay of Honduras, there are several smaller rivers: the Rio de Lean, Rio Ullua, and Chamaeleon, are navigable to some extent for small river barges or piraguas, and the first and last for small schooners.

The river Michatoyat flows from the Lake of Amatitan, and forms at its mouth the harbour of Istapa or Independencia in the Pacific.

The Motagua, the largest river that falls into the Bay of Honduras, rises at the foot of the western slope of the table-land, about 15 deg. north latitude, and flows east, forming numerous rapids and cataracts, as it descends from the highlands. At Gualan, about 100 miles from its mouth, it becomes navigable for flat river boats. A surf breaks over its bar, as it flows into the Golfo Dulce. The beautiful scenery of this river is enthusiastically described by Mr. Stephens. The Polochic rises on the eastern table-land, becomes navigable immediately after its descent at the Embarcadero de Teleman, and is said to be at all seasons deep enough for vessels drawing several feet of water (?) but the bar at its mouth has only from three to four feet of water. This river also flows into the Golfo Dulce.

The USUMASINTA is considered the largest river of Central America. Its principal branch, rises in the table-land, not far from the Motagua. After a course of nearly 100 miles it is joined on the right by the Rio de la Pasion, which rises further east, and about seventy miles from the Gulf of Honduras. From this junction the Usumasinta flows about fifty miles more through the table-land, from which it descends by cataracts. Some miles below which, near a small stream, are the unaccounted-for ruins of Palenque, in the republic of Chiapa, through which country the Usumasinta runs more than 150 miles. In this part of its course it is joined by two tributaries, the Tulijà and Tabasco. Below the cataracts it is navigable for boats of considerable burden. It falls under the name of Rio Tabasco, into the Bay of Campeachy, where its principal branch forms the port of Victoria. The bar at its mouth is passed over by vessels which sail up to St. Juan Batista. Another branch falls into the Lago de Terminos.

Mr. Stephens, in his work on Yucatan gives some interesting sketches of the Usumasinta. From the ruins of Palenque he returned to the Indian village of Palenque, eight miles from these ruins, and on the bank of the Chacomel, a tributary of the Usumasinta. From this village he entered a beautiful plain, ornamented with trees: this plain, traversed by streams, extended to the Gulf of Mexico. On the borders of a wood-land, he observed

singular trees, with a tall trunk, the bark very smooth, and the branches festooned with birds'-nests. The birds were called the *jagua*, and he was told by the padre they nestled in this tree to prevent serpents getting at their eggs or young birds.

He then travelled by a muddy road through a picturesque country to Las Payas, a village on the Usumasinta. The whole of the great plain downwards to the gulf he describes as intersected with creeks and rivers. Some of them dry in summer, and on the rising of the waters, overflowing their banks. At this place the principal food of the people was young alligators, killed when about a foot and a half long. He says, "They tasted better than the fish, and were the best food possible for our canoe voyaging."

"At seven o'clock we went down to the shore to embark. The boatmen whom the justice had consulted, and for whom he had been so tenacious, *were his honour himself and another man*, who we thought was hired as the cheapest help he could find in the village. The canoe was about forty feet long, with a *toldo* or awning of about twelve feet at the stern, and covered with matting. All the space before this was required by the boatmen to work the canoe, and, with all our luggage under the awning, we had but narrow quarters. The seeming lake on which we started, was merely a large inundated plain, covered with water to the depth of three or four feet; and the justice in the stern, and his assistant before, walking in the bottom of the canoe, with poles against their shoulders, sent her across. At eight we entered a narrow, muddy creek, not wider than a canal, but very deep, and with the current against us. The setting pole could not touch the bottom, but it was forked at one end, and keeping close to the bank, the bogador or rower fixed it against the branches of overhanging trees, and pushed, while the *justice*, whose pole had a rude hook, fastened it to other branches forward, and pulled. In this way, with no view but that of the wooded banks, we worked slowly along the muddy stream. In turning a short bend, suddenly we saw on the banks eight or ten alligators, some of them twenty feet long, huge, hideous monsters, appropriate inhabitants of such a stream, and, considering the frailty of our little vessel, not very attractive neighbours. As we approached, they plunged heavily into the water, sometimes rose in the middle of the stream, and swam across or disappeared. At half-past twelve we entered the Rio Chico, or *Little River*, varying from two to five hundred feet in width, deep, muddy, and very sluggish, with wooded banks of impenetrable thickness. At six o'clock we entered the great Usumasinta, five or six hundred yards across, one of the noblest rivers in Central America, rising among the mountains of Peten, and emptying into the Lake of Terminos."

The three republics or states of Chiapos, Tobasco, and Yucatan, bound each other at the junction of the Usumasinta and the Rio Chico. After leaving the flooded country below *Playas*, they ascended the River Chico. Crossing the point of the junction, after ascending the current of the Rio Chico, they turned into the descending flood of the Usumasinta.

"At this time," says Mr. Stephens, "away from the wooded banks, with the setting poles at rest, and floating quietly on the bosom of the noble Usumasinta, our situation was pleasant and exciting. A strong wind sweeping down the river drove away the Moschetoes, and there were no gathering clouds to indicate rain. We had expected to come to for the night, but the evening was so clear that we determined to continue. Unfortunately, we were obliged to leave the Usumasinta, and about an hour after dark turned to the north into the Rio Palisada. The Usumasinta in its stately course receives many, and sends off other tributaries to find their way by other channels to the sea.

"Leaving the broad expanse of the Usumasinta, with its comparative light, the Rio

Palisada narrow, and with a dark line of forest on each side, had an aspect fearfully ominous of Moschetoës. Unfortunately, at the very beginning we brushed against the bank, and took on board enough to show us the blood-thirsty character of the natives (*Moschetoës*). Of course, that night afforded us little sleep. At daylight we were still dropping down the river. This was the region of the great logwood country. We met a large bongo with two masts moving against the stream, set up by hauling and pushing on the branches of trees, on her way for a cargo. As we advanced, the banks of the river in some places were cleared and cultivated, and had whitewashed houses, and small sugar-mills turned by oxen, and canoes were lying on the water; altogether, the scene was pretty, but with the richness of the soil suggesting the idea how beautiful this country might be made. At two o'clock we reached the Palisada, situated on the left bank of the river, on a luxuriant plain, elevated some fifteen or twenty feet. Several bongoes lay along the bank, and in front was a long street with large and well-built houses. This, our first point, was in the state of Yucatan, then in revolution against the government of Mexico. Our descent of the river had been watched from the bank, and before we landed we were hailed, asked for our passports, and directed to present ourselves immediately to the *alcalde* (Don Francisco)."

Palisada made its *pronunciamiento* but two weeks before, the central officers had turned out, and the present *alcalde* was hardly warm in his place. The change, however, had been effected with a spirit of moderation and forbearance, and without bloodshed. Don Francisco, with a liberality unusual, spoke of his immediate predecessor as an upright but misguided man, who was not persecuted, but then living in the place unmolested. The liberals, however, did not expect the same treatment at the hands of the centralists. An invasion had been apprehended from Tobasco. Don Francisco had his silver and valuables packed up, and kept his bongo before the door to save his effects and family, and the place was alive with patriots brushing up arms and preparing for war.

This Don Francisco is described as a rich man; had a hacienda of 30,000 head of cattle, logwood plantations, and bongoes, and was rated at 200,000 dollars.

He received Mr. Stephens most hospitably; dinner was served in a style unusual in Yucatan. He had two sons, whom he intended to send to the United States to be educated.

"For the first time," says Mr. Stephens, "in a long while, we had bread made of flour from New York, and the barrel head had a Rochester brand. Don Francisco had never travelled further than Tobasco and Campeachy, but he was well acquainted with Europe and the United States, geographically and politically; indeed, he was one of the most agreeable companions and best-informed men we met in that country. We remained with him all the afternoon, and towards evening moved our chairs outside in front of the house, which at evening was the regular gathering-place of the family. The bank of the river was a promenade for the people of the town, who stopped to exchange greetings with Don Francisco and his wife; a vacant chair was always at hand, and from time to time one took a seat with us. When the vesper-bell struck, conversation ceased, all rose from their seats, made a short prayer, and when it was over, turned to each other with a *buenos noches*, reseated themselves and renewed the conversation. There was always something imposing in the sound of the vesper-bell, presenting the idea of an immense multitude of people at the same moment offering up a prayer."

On leaving this hospitable Don, Mr. Stephens embarked on board a bongo for Laguna. This craft was about fifteen tons, flat-bottomed, with two masts and

sails, and loaded with logwood. This deck was covered with mangoes, plantains, and other fruits and vegetables. An awning was formed by stretching a sail over the deck.

On leaving the town, they passed an island about four leagues in length, and a large farming establishment, with canoes lying opposite, in which all intercourse appears to be confined. The rivers and flooded country being the only high roads. Below this farm no habitations appeared. The Usumasinta was deep, the banks densely wooded, and overhung with broad-spreading branches of the most luxuriant vegetation. Alligators seemed to be the possessors of these waters.

"Some lay basking in the sun on mud-banks, like logs of drift-wood, and in many places the river was dotted with their heads. The Spanish historian says that they swim with their heads above the water, gaping at whatsoever they see, and swallow, whether stick, stone, or living creature, which is the true reason of their swallowing stones; and not to sink to the bottom as some say, for they have no need to do so, nor do they like it, being extraordinary swimmers; for the tail serves instead of a rudder, the head is the prow, and the paws the oars, being so swift as to catch any other fish as it swims. A hundred weight and a half of fresh fish has been found in the maw of an alligator, besides what was digested; in another was an Indian woman whole, with her clothes, whom he had swallowed the day before; and another with a pair of gold bracelets, with pearls and enamel gone off, and part of the pearls dissolved, but the gold entire."

Mr. Stephens was informed by Don Francisco, that on the previous year a man had had his leg bitten off by an alligator, and was drowned. The *Patron* of the bungo told him that at the end of the last dry season upwards of 200 had been counted in the bed of a pond. Bungo men attacked them with clubs, sharp pickets, and machetes, and killed upwards of sixty.

"The river itself," says Mr. Stephens, as they floated downwards; "discoloured with muddy banks, and a fiery sun beating upon it was ugly enough; but these huge and ugly monsters, neither fish nor flesh made it absolutely hideous. The boatmen called them *enemigos de los Christianos*. We brought out our guns and made indiscriminate war. One monster, twenty-five to thirty feet long, lay on the arm of a gigantic tree, which projected forty or fifty feet, the lower part covered with water, but the whole of the alligator was visible. I hit him just under the white line, he fell off with a tremendous convulsion, reddening the water with a circle of blood, and turned over on his back dead. A boatman, and one of the Petan lads got into a canoe to bring him alongside.

"Our track down the river will be remembered as a desolation and a scourge. Old alligators, by dying injunction, will teach the rising generation to keep the head under water when the bungoes are coming. We killed, perhaps, twenty, and others are probably sitting on the banks with our bullets in their bodies wondering how they came there. With rifles we could have killed at least a hundred."

The following appears to be descriptive of a phenomena characteristic of the climate:—

"At three o'clock the regular afternoon storm came on, beginning with a tremendous sweep of wind up the river, which turned the bungo round, drove its broadside up the stream, and before we could come to at the bank we had a deluge of rain. At length we made fast, secured the hatch over the place prepared for us, and crawled under. It was so low that we could not sit up, and lying down there was about a foot of room above us. On our arrival at the Palisada we considered ourselves fortunate in finding a bungo ready, although she had already on board a full load of logwood from stem to stern."

In the evening the rain ceased, and afterwards the wind and the clouds rolled away, the sun shone forth, and Mr. Stephens says, "But for the abominable insects (*moschetoes*), our float down the wild and desolate river would have been an event to live in memory ; as it was, not one of us attempted to sleep ; and I verily believe a man could not have passed an entire night on the banks and lived."

Next morning they entered the Bocca Chico, or little mouth, one of the branches of the Delta of the Usumasinta. The banks were overhung with the branches of magnificent trees. In a few hours the stream floated them into the Lake, or Laguna, de Terminos. "Once more in salt water," says Mr. Stephens, "and stretching out under full sail, on the right we saw only an expanse of water : on the left was a border of trees, with naked rocks, which seemed leaping out of the water ; and in face, but a little to the left and barely visible, a long line of trees marking the island of Carmen, on which stood the town of Laguna, our port of destination." The passage from the river to the lake is described as shallow, narrow, and intersected by sand-bars and reefs. Soon after passing these dangers they came in] sight of the vessels anchored at Laguna. A calm followed. The heat on the lake was indescribably oppressive. A sudden storm of lightning, thunder, wind, and a deluge of rain followed about three o'clock. In about an hour this awful phenomena passed away. It being quite calm, the bungo was then towed towards the town ; a squall, with a flood of rain, broke suddenly over them before reaching the harbour ; a surf broke over the beach, and after the squall ceased, they were landed in a boat belonging to one of the many vessels at anchor. In the town they found stores, cafés, barbers shops, and depôts of logwood.

CHAPTER II.

HARBOURS AND TOWNS OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

THIS region has some excellent deep harbours, and several good ones for small vessels.

The *Gulf of Honduras* is situated between the northern Mosquito Shore and the Peninsula of Yucatan. At the bottom of the Gulf is the Bay of Honduras. Motagua and several lesser rivers flow into this bay ; which also contains the ports of Omoa and of Yzabal (the latter within the Golfo Dulce). Within this bay are smaller bays, of which that of San Thomas is spacious and deep. The communication from Yucatan or Belize is long and tedious, as vessels have to beat against the trade wind. To obviate this delay, a steamboat should be estab-

lished to run from Belize to the different ports of Honduras and the Mosquito Territory.

The *Golfo Dulce*, is a lagoon about thirty miles long. The shores are wooded.

The Rio Dulce, which flows from the lagoon into the Bay of Honduras, is about twenty miles in length, including the smaller lagoon, or Golfetta, which is about ten miles long.

The entrance to the Gulf of Dulce is described as follows in Mr. Stephens' work on Central America :

"A narrow opening in a rampart of mountain woods on, and in a few moments we entered the Rio Dulce. On each side, rising perpendicularly, from 300 to 400 feet was a wall of living green. Trees grew from the water's edge, with dense, unbroken foliage to the top; not a spot of barrenness was to be seen; and on both sides, from the tops of the highest trees long tendrils descended to the water, as if to drink and carry life to the trunks that bore them. It was, as its name imports, a Rio Dulce, a fairy scene of Titan land, combining exquisite beauty with colossal grandeur. As we advanced the passage turned, and in a few minutes we lost sight of the sea, and were enclosed on all sides by a forest wall; but the river, although showing us no passage, still invited us onward. Could this be the portal to a land of volcanoes and earthquakes, torn and distracted by civil war? For some time we looked in vain for a single barren spot; at length we saw a naked wall of perpendicular rock, but out of the crevices, and apparently out of the rock itself, grew shrubs and trees. Sometimes we were so inclosed, that it seemed as if the boat must drive in among the trees. Occasionally, in an angle of the turns, the wall sunk, and the sun struck in with scorching force, but in a moment we were again in the deepest shade. From the fanciful accounts we had heard, we expected to see monkeys gambolling among the trees, and parrots flying over our heads; but all was as quiet as if man had never been there before. The pelican, the stillest of birds, was the only living thing we saw, and the only sound was the unnatural bluster of our steam engine. The wild defile that leads to the excavated city of Petra is not more noiseless or more extraordinary, but strangely contrasting in its sterile desolation, while here all is luxuriant, romantic, and beautiful.

"For nine miles the passage continued thus one scene of unvarying beauty, when suddenly the narrow river expanded into a large lake, encompassed by mountains, and studded with islands, which the setting sun illuminated with gorgeous splendour. We remained on deck till a late hour, and awoke the next morning in the harbour of Yzabal. A single schooner of about forty tons, showed the low state of her commerce. We landed before seven o'clock in the morning, and even then it was hot. There were no idlers on the bank, and the custom-house officer was the only person to receive us.

The town of Yzabel stands on the gentle sloping banks of the Golfo Dulce, with high mountains rising in the background. A street runs from the water to a sort of square: with the exception of two or three wooden-framed houses, the other habitations were huts. Under a large shed were bales of merchandise mules, muleteers, and Indians, for carrying merchandise across the Mico Mountain.

The arrival of the priest was announced by ringing the church bells, and, in his canonicals, he soon proceeded to the church and celebrated mass. In front of the church was planted a large wooden cross. The floor was hard earth covered with leaves; the walls were decorated with branches and flowers; on the altar were the Virgin and some saints. For a considerable time mass had not been performed, and Spaniards, Mestizoes, and Indians, thronged to the devotion.

SAN JUAN DEL NORTE, in Nicaragua, 11 deg. N. latitude, and 83 deg. 48 min. W. long., situated on the western mouth of the Rio de San Juan, has a good harbour, very little frequented, and with few inhabitants. Hides and some Indigo are brought down the River San Juan from the country and towns round the Lake of Nicaragua, of which see account of the Harbour and River San Juan, included in the description hereafter of the isthmus of Nicaragua and of Panama.

OMOA is situated on a small bay, forming a good harbour, by which most of the European goods destined for Guatemala and St. Salvador are imported. It is an unhealthy place, and chiefly inhabited by a few mulattoes.

The inland towns of COMAYAGUA and TEGUCIGALPA are situated in the province of Honduras, in which is also situated TRUXILLO, an open bay, with anchorage in a roadstead. Mahogany is cut in the neighbourhood, and is almost the only article of export. The town, with the adjacent hamlets, contains about 4000 inhabitants.

NEW GUATEMALA, the capital of the state, is situated on an undulating plain, 4961 feet above the sea. In the *tierra templada*, or temperate region, the climate is very much like that of Italy, but not so cold in winter. The houses, constructed with the apprehension of earthquakes, though capacious, are only one story high, with thick walls, and with gardens attached. The streets are broad, straight, cross each other at right angles, and are partly paved. The public buildings are, a university, five convents, four nunneries, a cathedral, and about twenty churches, the treasury, the mint, and other government offices: most of them exhibit a secular style of architecture. The great hospital, called San Juan de Dios, can receive 400 patients. Water is brought, by an aqueduct, from a spring about five miles from the town, and conducted into twelve public reservoirs, from which it is distributed to the private houses. The population of New Guatemala, including some adjacent places, is estimated at above 40,000 souls.

The Plaza is a square of 150 yards on each side, paved, and with a colonnade along three sides: on one of the sides stands the old vice-regal palace and hall of the audiencia; on another are the Cabildo and some other state buildings. On the third side stands the custom-house and palace of the *ci-devant* Marquisate of Aycinena. The fourth side is occupied by the cathedral, a superb edifice, with the archbishop's palace on one side, and a college on the other. In the centre there is a large stone fountain. A market is held in the Plaza.

The houses of New Guatemala, though low, cover an extensive surface. The house occupied by the American chargé d'affaires, Mr. De Witt, is described as on the same plan as that of the houses generally, the entrance of which is by a large double door, then through a passage paved with small black and white stones, into a patio or court paved in like manner, around the sides of which are

wide corridors, paved with square red bricks. These corridors are bordered with various flowers. In front, facing the street, and adjoining the entrance, there is an ante-room having a large window with a balcony; then a *sala*, with two windows. A door opens from this room into the *comedor* or *salle à manger*. This is the dining-room, and has two windows facing the corridor: adjoining this room there is a bed-room, and then another bed-room with doors and windows also facing the corridor. In the centre and fronting the back part of the court are rooms for servants, and in the corners of the building a kitchen and stable are concealed. The plan of all the houses in Guatemala is the same; others are much larger; that of the Aycinena family, for example, covered a square of 200 feet long on each side.

The city of Guatemala is renowned for its religious observances. At matins and vespers the churches are all open, and the inhabitants—especially all the women—are constant in their devotions. Each house has its image of the Virgin, the Saviour, or some saint.

The processions in honour of the Virgin, and other religious processions, are frequent. All the streets through which the processions pass are strewn with pine leaves, and adorned with arches decorated with evergreens and flowers. From the long balconies and windows are displayed curtains of crimson silk and flags with various devices. At the corners are erected altars, within huge arbours of evergreens, and on these altars pictures and silver ornaments, borrowed from the churches, are conspicuous, and surmounted with flowers. The plain, or the valley of Guatemala is pre-eminent for the variety and brilliancy of its floral kingdom. These flowers are in profusion devoted to the embellishment of the religious processions.

Of the surrounding country, and the cities of New and Old Guatemala, Mr. Stephens says—

“Late in the afternoon, as I was ascending a small eminence, two immense volcanoes stood up before me, seeming to scorn the earth and towering to the heavens. They were the great volcanoes of Agua and Fuego, forty miles distant, and nearly fifteen thousand feet high, wonderfully grand and beautiful. In a few moments the great plain of Guatemala appeared in view, surrounded by mountains, and in the centre of it the city, a mere speck on the vast expanse, with churches, and convents, and numerous turrets, cupolas, and steeples, and still as if the spirit of peace rested upon it, with no storied associations, but by its own beauty creating an impression on the mind of the traveller which can never be effaced. I dismounted and tied up my mule. As yet the sun lighted up the roofs and domes of the city, giving a reflection so dazzling that I could only look at them by stealth. By degrees its disc touched the top of the Volcano del Agua; slowly the whole orb sank behind it, illuminating the background with an atmosphere fiery red. A rich golden cloud rolled up its side and rested on the top, and while I gazed the golden hues disappeared, and the glory of the scene was gone.

“As yet I did not know where to stop; there was no hotel in Guatemala!”

Old Guatemala (La Antigua) is situated in a narrow valley between the two volcanoes called Del Agua (*of water*) and Del Fuego (*of fire*), 5817 feet above the sea. It was the capital of the country until 1773, when it was destroyed by

repeated earthquakes. New Guatemala was founded in 1776, and the seat of government transferred to it. A considerable number of inhabitants, however, remained at Old Guatemala, the population of which is now said to exceed 15,000. Their attachment to this town is so remarkable that the inhabitants are called "*The Incurables*." A great part of the town is filled with ruins, but it still contains some large buildings. It has also some rude cotton-manufactories. Few places in the world are more picturesque than the country about Old Guatemala. The volcano del Agua is 12,620 feet above the sea, and the volcano del Fuego still higher. The first vomits water, the second fire.

Mr. Stephens says of this city—

"On each side were the ruins of churches, convents, and private residences, large and costly, some lying in masses, some with fronts still standing, richly ornamented with stucco, cracked and yawning, roofless, without doors or windows, and trees growing inside above the walls. Many of the houses have been repaired, the city is partly re-peopled, and presents a strange appearance of ruin and recovery. The inhabitants, like the dwellers over the buried Herculaneum, seemed to entertain no fears of renewed disaster. The great volcanoes of Agua and Fuego look down upon it. In the centre of the Plaza there is a large stone fountain, and it is surrounded by magnificent buildings. The former palace of the captain-general, displaying the armorial bearings granted by the Emperor Charles V., to 'the loyal and noble city,' and surmounted by a statue of St. James on horseback, armed and brandishing a sword, and the roofless and dilapidated cathedral, a vast edifice, 300 feet long, 120 broad, nearly seventy high, and lighted by fifty windows, are monuments which tell us that *La Antigua* was one of the most superb cities of America, and to which Alvarado gave the name of '*the City of St. James of Gentlemen*.' "

About four o'clock in the afternoon of the 29th of July, 1773, the foundations of the city began to tremble, and in a few minutes a most terrible earthquake damaged a great portion of the city. On the 7th of September following, another laid prostrate most of the buildings which were previously disturbed, and on the 13th of December, the ancient city of Guatemala was, by a tremendous earthquake, rendered uninhabitable.

TOTONICAPAN is estimated to contain 12,000 inhabitants, nearly all aborigines; they manufacture some earthenware, wooden utensils, woollen cloths, and a few other articles.

QUEZALTENANGO has an estimated population of about 14,000 inhabitants, with some woollen and cotton manufactures. In its neighbourhood is a volcano and a hot spring, the waters of which are thrown out forming a *jet d'eau*, rising to the height of twenty or thirty feet.

Of this town Mr. Stephens says,—

"As we approached Quezaltenango seven towering churches showed that the religion so hastily adopted had not died away. In a few minutes we entered the city. The streets were handsomely paved, and the houses picturesque in architecture; the Cabildo had two stories and a corridor. The cathedral, with its façade richly decorated, was grand and imposing. The Plaza was paved with stone, having a fine fountain in the centre, and commanding a magnificent view of the volcano and mountains around."

COBAN, the capital of Vera Paz, is situated in an undulating and luxuriant

valley, and is supposed to contain about 14,000 inhabitants, nearly all of whom are aborigines; and said to be much more wealthy and orderly than in any other part of the country. The valley is described as exceedingly fertile, and covered with plantations of sugar-cane, bananas, pimento-trees, and various kinds of fruit-trees.

SALAMA contains about 5000 inhabitants, is situated on the road between Guatemala and the Embarcadero de Telemanon the Polochic.

GUALAN, on the Rio Motagua, is the place where the goods which ascend the river are unladen, and those intended for exportation are laden.

Of the country around Gualan, Mr. Stephens says—

“They next day travelled for some distance along the banks of the Motagua, almost as beautiful by morning as by evening light. The scenery was grand, but the land wild and uncultivated, without fences, enclosures, or habitations—a few cattle were wandering wild over the great expanse. We met a few Indians with their machees, going to their morning's work, and a man riding a mule, with a woman before him, his arm encircling her waist.

“For an hour longer we continued on the ridge of the mountain, then entered a more woody country, and in half an hour came to a large gate, which stood directly across the road like a toll-bar. It was the first token we had seen of individual or territorial boundary, and in other countries would have formed a fitting entrance to a princely estate; for the massive frame, with all its posts and supporters, was of solid mahogany. The heat was now intense. We emerged into an open plain, on which the sun beat with almost intolerable power; and crossing the plain at about three o'clock, entered Gualan. There was not a breath of air; the houses and the earth seemed to throw out heat.

“Towards evening we strolled through the town. It stands upon a table of breccia rock, at the junction of two noble rivers, and is encircled by a belt of mountains. One principal street, the houses of one story, with piazzas in front, terminates in a plaza or public square, at the head of which stands a large church with a Gothic door; and before it, at a distance of ten or twelve yards, was a cross about twenty feet high. The population is about 10,000, chiefly Mestitzoes. Leaving the plaza, we walked down to the Motagua, on the bank a boat was in process of construction, about fifty feet long and ten wide, entirely of mahogany. Near to it a party of men and women were fording the stream, carrying their clothes above their heads, and around a point three women were bathing. There are no ancient associations connected with this place, but the wildness of the scene, the clouds, the tints of the sky, and the setting sun reflected upon the mountains were beautiful. At dark we returned to the house. Except for the companionship of some thousands of ants, which blackened the candles, and covered every thing perishable, we had a room to ourselves. Early in the morning we were served with chocolate and a small roll of sweet bread. Toward evening the whole town was in commotion, preparatory to the great fête of Santa Lucia. Early next morning, the firing of muskets, petards, and rockets, announced the arrival of this lady, one of the holiest saints of the calendar, and, next to San Antonio, the most renowned for working miracles.”

TORTILLAS. — On entering another house, he found “the whole family engaged in making tortillas. This is the bread of Central and of all Spanish America, and the only species to be found except in the principal towns. At one end of the *cucinera* was an elevation, on which stood a comal, or griddle, resting on three stones, with a fire blazing under it. The daughter-in-law had before her an earthen vessel containing Indian corn soaked in lime-water to remove the husk, and placing a handful on an oblong stone, curving inward, mashed it with a stone roller into a thick paste. The girls took it as it was mashed, and patting it with their hands into flat cakes, laid them on the griddle to bake. This is repeated for every meal, and a great part of the business of the women consists in making tortillas.

REALEJO, on the Pacific, is capacious, has safe anchorage, and exports the

produce of the country, chiefly mahogany, cedar, and Nicaragua-wood, to Peru, Chile, &c. The harbour, according to Juarros, is capable of containing 1000 ships. The village at this port has two or three streets, with low straggling houses, behind which there is a forest. It was founded by a few of the companions of Alvarado. Afterwards its situation near the sea exposed it to the devastations of the old buccaneers; and in consequence, the inhabitants retired to the interior, and built Leon.

LEON is the capital of the state of Nicaragua; it was formerly a place of importance, with a population of 32,000 souls; but has been since greatly reduced by anarchy and other distracting circumstances. It is situated on a plain about forty miles from Realejo, ten from the sea, and fifteen from the Lake of Managua. It has a university, cathedral, and eight large churches, and other public institutions. It carries on some trade through Realejo. The houses are described by Mr. Roberts as very similar to those of Guatemala, none being above two stories high. The population in 1820 was about 14,000.

Plain of Leon.—This plain is bounded on the Pacific side by a low ridge, and on the right by high mountains, part of the chain of the Cordilleras. Mr. Stephens says:—

“Before us at a great distance, rising above the level of the plain, we saw the spires of the Cathedral of Leon. This magnificent plain, in richness of soil is not surpassed by any land in the world, lay as desolate as when the Spaniards first traversed it. The dry season was near its close; for four months there had been no rain, and the dust hung around us in thick clouds, hot and fine as the sands of Egypt. Leon had an appearance of old and aristocratic respectability, which no other city in Central America possessed. The houses were large, and many of the fronts were full of stucco ornaments; the plaza was spacious, and the squares of the churches and the churches themselves magnificent. It was under Spain, a bishop's see, and distinguished for the costliness of its churches and convents, its seats of learning, and its men of science, to the time of its revolution.

“In walking through its streets,” observes Mr. Stephens, “I saw palaces in which nobles had lived dismantled and roofless, and occupied by half-starved wretches, pictures of misery and want, and on one side an immense field of ruins covering half the city. I must confess that I felt a degree of uneasiness in walking the streets of Leon that I never felt in any city in the East. My change of dress did not make my presence more acceptable, and the eagle on my hat attracted particular attention. At every corner was a group of scoundrels, who stared at me as if disposed to pick a quarrel. With some my official character made me an object of suspicion, for in their disgraceful fights they thought that the eyes of the whole world were upon them, and that England, France, and the United States were secretly contending for the possession of their interesting country.”

SEBA is a small port on the Bay of Conchagua, by which the produce of the mines of Tabanco used to be exported.

VALLADOLID DE COMAYAGUA, the capital of the state of Honduras, is situated nearly in its centre, between two rivers, in a fine valley, with about 3000 inhabitants. It has the reputation of being an unhealthy place.

TEGUCIGALPA is situated on the high table-land of Honduras, estimated population 8000 to 10,000 inhabitants. In its neighbourhood are mines of gold, silver, copper, and iron.

The harbour of CONCHAGUA, situated on the gulf of the same name, is a safe port. Between the Gulf of Conchagua and the port of Acapulco there is no good harbour on the coast of the Pacific, and trading vessels are obliged to anchor in open roadsteads. The roadstead of Libertad is the place goods destined for St. Salvador are unladen,—that of Acajutla is the port of Sonzonate.

ST. SALVADOR, of the Federal District, contains above 16,000 inhabitants. They are said to be industrious, and manufacture iron and cotton. It is situated near a stream, between hills. The Federal District lies around the town in a circle, with a radius of about eleven miles, except towards the Pacific, where it extends to the roadstead of Libertad, about twenty-six miles distant. The volcano of St. Salvador is within the Federal District.

ST. VICENTE, contains about 8000 inhabitants. In its neighbourhood are plantations of indigo and tobacco, the latter on the declivity of the volcano of St. Vicente.

ST. MIGUEL, said to have a population of 8000 inhabitants, is noted for its fairs, the most important of which is held in the month of November, after the indigo crop—that article being raised in great quantities in its neighbourhood. The town is considered unhealthy.

SACATECOLUCA is situated in the low country which borders the Pacific, with 8000 inhabitants. A considerable quantity of indigo is raised in the neighbourhood.

SONZONATE, situated on the banks of the Rio Grande, about twelve miles from the roadstead of Acajutla, is estimated as having about 10,000 inhabitants, who make and export fancy shell-work. The surrounding country is one of the richest districts of the state of St. Salvador. From the Plaza the streets cross at right angles. The houses are only one story high, but generally large. The best houses are deserted in consequence of anarchy having driven their owners into exile. For the seven superb churches there was lately but one priest. In its neighbourhood sugar is grown for home consumption, and some is also exported to Peru from Acajutla. The volcano of Izalco is in the neighbourhood.

AGUACHAPA has a population estimated at 8000 inhabitants. Sugar is cultivated near it.

SANTA ANNA, estimated population, 10,000 inhabitants. There are plantations of indigo and sugar-canes in the neighbourhood. The best sugar in the country is made here, and in the adjacent mountains iron-mines are worked.

METAPA, near the Lake of Metapa, estimated population 8000 inhabitants. There are iron-mines in the neighbourhood.

MANAGUA, near Lake Managua, has about 13,000 inhabitants, chiefly whites.

MASAYA, a neatly-built town, near the Lake of Nicaragua, is stated to have a population of about 13,000 inhabitants, chiefly Indians, who trade in the produce of the country and other articles.

GRANADA, with about 14,000 inhabitants, is situated on the borders of the Lake of Nicaragua. It is the principal place from which the produce of the country is sent to the harbour, of San Juan del Norte, by the craft which navigate the lake and river.

NICARAGUA, about three miles from the lake, is said to contain from 10,000 to 12,000 inhabitants, and, with the district of St. George, from 20,000 to 22,000. It is situated in a fertile district, where great quantities of cacao are raised.

On the table-land of Nicaragua, is the little town of New Segovia, in the neighbourhood of which excellent tobacco is grown.

COMITAN, the frontier town of Chiapas, contains a population of about ten thousand. The landed proprietors of the surrounding country, as in other parts of Central America, have houses in this town and visit their haciendas occasionally. Comitán is notorious for its smuggling trade. Most of the European goods used in this part of Central America are smuggled in from Belize and Guatemala.

With regard to the population of any of the towns of Central America we consider the foregoing estimates as exceedingly vague.

CHAPTER III.

ROUTE OVER THE MOUNTAINS FROM THE GULF OF DULCE TO GUATEMALA.

ALTHOUGH Central America has been traversed and possessed, since the year 1513, that is 333 years, by the Spanish-European race, the route from the eastern to the western coast, may be considered as one disgraceful to the most barbarous of nations.

The route from the Golfo Dulce on the east to the city of Guatemala near the western shores of America has been passed over for more than two hundred years, yet no road, properly speaking, has been constructed for carriages; and goods, provisions, and not unfrequently travellers, continue to be carried on men's shoulders, or on the backs of animals.

All descriptions that we have read, or heard, of the interior means of communication agree in denouncing the badness, or rather the absence of roads. The journey of Mr. Stephens from the Golfo Dulce fully confirms these statements. He tells us that:—

“At daylight the muleteers commenced loading for the passage of the ‘mountain:’ at seven o’clock the whole caravan, consisting of nearly one hundred mules and twenty or thirty muleteers, was fairly under way. Our immediate party consisted of five mules—two for Mr. Catherwood and myself, one for Augustin, and two for luggage; besides which we had *four Indian carriers*. A padre was carried on the back of an Indian who was relieved when exhausted by another Indian.

“Passing a few straggling houses, which constituted the suburbs of the town, we

entered upon a marshy plain sprinkled with shrubs and small trees, and in a few minutes were in an unbroken forest. At every step the mules sank to their fetlocks in mud, and very soon we came to great puddles and mudholes, which reminded me of the breaking up of winter, and the solitary horsepath in one of our primeval forests at home. As we advanced, the shade of the trees became thicker, the holes larger and deeper, and roots rising two or three feet above the ground crossed the path in every direction. I gave the barometer to the muleteer, and had as much as I could do to keep myself in the saddle. All conversation was at an end, and we kept as close as we could to the track of the muleteer; when he descended into a mudhole and crawled out, the entire legs of the mule were blue with mud, we followed, and came out as blue as he.

"The caravan of mules, which had started before us, was but a short distance ahead, and in a little while we heard ringing through the woods the loud shout of the muleteers and the sharp crack of the whip. We overtook them at the bank of a stream which broke rapidly over a stony bed. The whole caravan was moving up the bed of the stream; the water was darkened by the shade of the overhanging trees; the muleteers without shirts, and with their large trousers rolled up to the thighs and down from the waistband, were scattered among the mules: one was chasing a stray beast; a second darting at one whose load was slipping off; a third lifting up one that had fallen; another, with his foot braced against a mule's side, straining at the girth; all shouting, cursing, and lashing: the whole a mass of inextricable confusion, and presenting a scene almost terrific.

"The branches of the trees met over our heads, and the bed of the stream was so broken and stony that the mules constantly stumbled and fell.

"The ascent began precipitously, and by an extraordinary passage. It was a narrow gulley, worn by the tracks of mules and the washing of mountain torrents so deep that the sides were higher than our heads, and so narrow that we could barely pass through without touching. Our whole caravan moved singly through these muddy defiles, the muleteers scattered among them and on the bank above, extricating the mules as they stuck fast, raising them as they fell, arranging their cargoes, cursing, shouting, and lashing them on. If one stopped, all behind were blocked up, unable to turn. Any sudden start pressed us against the sides of the gulley, and there was no small danger of getting a leg crushed. Emerging from this defile, we came again among deep mudholes and projecting roots of trees, with the additional difficulty of a steep ascent. The trees, too, were larger, and their roots higher and extending farther; and above all, the mahogany-tree threw out its giant roots, high at the trunk and tapering, not round like the roots of other trees, but straight, with sharp edges, traversing rocks and the roots of other trees.

"It was the last of the rainy season; the heavy rains from which we had suffered at sea had deluged the mountains; and it was in the worst state to be passable, for sometimes it is not passable at all. For the last few days there had been no rain; but we had hardly congratulated ourselves upon our good fortune in having a clear day, when the forest became darker and the rain poured. The woods were of impenetrable thickness; and there was no view except that of the detestable path before us. For five long hours we were dragged through mudholes, squeezed in gulleys, knocked against trees, and tumbled over roots; every step required care and great physical exertion; and above all, I felt that our inglorious epitaph might be—'tossed over the head of a mule, brained by the trunk of a mahogany-tree, and buried in the mud of the Mico Mountain.' We attempted to walk, but the rocks and roots were so slippery, the mudholes so deep, and the ascents and descents so steep, that it was impossible to continue. The mules were only half loaded, and even then several broke down—the lash could not move them, and scarcely one passed over without a fall.

"The descent was as bad as the ascent; and instead of stopping to let the mules breathe, as they had done on ascending, the muleteers seemed anxious to determine in how short a time they could tumble them down the mountain. In one of the muddiest defiles we were shut up by the falling of a mule before, and the crowding upon us of all behind; and at the first convenient place we stopped until the whole caravan had passed.

This is the great high road to the city of Guatemala, which has always been a place of distinction in Spanish America. Almost all the travel and merchandise from Europe passes over it ; and our guide said, the reason it was so bad was because it was traversed by so many mules. In some countries this would be a reason for making it better ; but it was pleasant to find that the people to whom I was accredited, were relieved from one of the sources of contention at home, and did not trouble themselves with the complicated questions attendant upon internal improvements.*

“ In two hours we reached a wild river or mountain torrent, foaming and breaking over its rocky bed, and shaded by large trees. It was called El Arroyo del Muerto, or Stream of the Dead.

“ With ten hours of the hardest riding I ever went through, we had only made twelve miles.”

He then travelled onward, and reached a beautiful table-land, where he met an encampment of muleteers on their way to Yzabel. Bales of indigo, which formed their cargoes, were piled up like a wall around them ; their mules were browsing near them, and they had lighted fires to cook their suppers.

He descended with the caravan from the table-land to a plain thickly wooded, and then through a grove of beautiful wild palm trees. He observes,—

“ From the top of a tall naked stem grew branches twenty or thirty feet long, spreading from the trunk, and falling outward with a graceful bend, like enormous plumes of feathers, the trees stood so close that the bending branches met, and formed arches in some parts as regular as if constructed by art.”

Before dark he reached the rancho of Micho, a small house constructed of poles, plastered together with mud, a larger house connected by a shed, thatched with branches for the express use of travellers. Here they hung their hammocks and slept. There were groups of muleteers bivouacked on the ground.

Next day the route was over a mountainous country, with little wood. When he reached the rancho of El Pozo they began to find that a scarcity of food was to be endured.

From El Pozo, they travelled along the ridge of a high mountain, which was ornamented with pine-trees, green hill sides, and cattle grazing on them. In the evening they descended by wild and difficult paths to the River Motagua, which was rolling majestically down a great deep valley. High mountains arose on each side, and before and behind. With some difficulty they crossed this river in a canoe, and the mules were by beating made to swim over. At the rancho they could get nothing to eat. Fatigued and heated, the travellers bathed in the Motagua. Men, women, and children at this place were almost naked. They next day proceeded up along the banks of the river, and then up the spur of a mountain. The country was wild, uncultivated, and uninhabited. At length they arrived at an Indian rancho, where they procured hot tortillas ; after which they travelled on, passing through thick woods, forded a wild stream, in company with a drove of pigs, reached a cochineal plantation, and, crossing an open plain, reached Gualan, where they found accommodation and food.

* Since that time the constituent assembly of Guatemala has imposed a tax of one dollar upon every bale of merchandise that passes over the mountain, for the improvement of the road.

From Gualan up to San Pablo on the south side of the Motagua River, the country exhibits great beauty and natural luxuriance ; the path ascends over a mountain, then descends to the river, and then ascends to San Pablo, whence it descends to the Plain of Zacapa—crossing which, and fording a stream, the route ascends to Zacapa—a town with a huge church. From this place to Chimalapa the road is more level ; and thence to the town of Guasloya the country is remarkably picturesque. The latter town stands overlooking a fertile valley in which are large *milfras*, or maize-fields. The route then passes through a wild ravine. Another long steep ascent leads over heights to the village of El Puerta, beyond which, after crossing a bridge over a torrent, another mountain-range is crossed commanding splendid views, and, on descending, an uncultivated country prevails to the cattle hacienda of San José. From this place the path leads over a table-land to an eminence, on the top of which the great Plain of Guatemala and the volcanoes of Agua and Fuego burst into the magnificent landscape. On the other side of this height there is a vast ravine to pass, beyond which the traveller enters the city of Guatemala.

CHAPTER IV.

MISCELLANEOUS SKETCHES OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

WE find no complete description of Central America. Juarras, although born and brought up in the country, says almost nothing of the eastern coast, or of the Mosquito Shore. It is remarkable that some of the most accurate descriptions of some parts of Central America, especially of the Rio Vankes or Segovia, are found in the journals of the old buccaneers. Of recent travellers, Mr. Stephens alone has best described the routes along which he travelled, and the places, things, and people which he saw. Juarras, in some of his descriptions of the Province and Lake of Nicaragua, is inaccurate from evident ignorance. Some of Dampier's descriptions are still accurate.

Central America is a country of such great extent, varied configuration, luxuriant fertility, and abundant natural resources, that, with the advantages of its many excellent harbours, and of its geographical position, it must become one of the most important in America, in connexion with the maritime and commercial spirit of the age, and with the events that have occurred, and those now in progress, towards inevitably great changes in the condition of Mexico and of this region. Central America cannot remain much longer an unproductive and barbarous country. We may at present apply to its rulers and possessors the remark made by Montesquieu on Constantinople, the condition of which he ascribed to "God permitting that Turks should exist on the earth ; a people the most fit to possess uselessly a great empire."

To complete the best account we can of this country, we have condensed

the following miscellaneous sketches, and those in the succeeding chapters, from the accounts of Dupais, Kingsborough, Roberts, Waldeck, Del Rio, Captain Belcher, Baily, Rouchaud, Dumatry, also from a work on Mexico and Guatemala published in Boston, and those subsequently of Mr. Stephens. The localities of the places described will be more easily discovered by a reference to the best modern maps of Central America.

On the party, with which Mr. Stephens travelled, leaving Gualan, the Motagua River flowed down on the right, and beyond it rose the mountains of Vera Paz, 6000 to 8000 feet high. They ascended amidst flowers, shrubs, and bushes decked in purple and red; and "on the sides of the mountain and in the ravines leading down to the river, in the wildest positions, were large trees so covered with red that they seemed a single flower."

As they descended, the river was rolling swiftly, and in some places breaking into rapids. They reached the village of San Pablo, "situated on a lofty table-land, looking down upon the river and having its view bounded by the mountains of Vera Paz." The church stood at the entrance of the village. They turned the mules loose to graze, and took their meals in the porch. It was a beautiful position, and two waterfalls shone like streaks of silver on the distant mountain-side.

At Zacapa, they saw, for the first time, a school-house. It was a respectable-looking building, with columns in front, and against the wall hung a large card, headed,

"1st Decurion (a student who has the care of ten other students), 2nd Decurion, monitor, &c.

"Interior regulation for the good government of the School of First Letters of this town, which ought to be observed strictly by all the boys composing it, &c."

With a long list of complicated articles declaring the "rewards and punishments."

The school, for the government of which these regulations were intended, consisted of five boys, two besides the decurions and monitor. It was nearly noon, and the master, who was the clerk of the alcalde, had not made his appearance. The only books were a Catholic prayer-book, and a translation of Montesquieu's "Spirit of Laws."

In an hour afterwards they forded the Motagua, still a broad, deep, and rapid stream. They then entered on the plain of Zacapa, cultivated for corn and cochineal, and divided by fences of brush and cactus. Beyond this the country became broken, arid, and barren. Soon after, they commenced ascending a steep mountain, and in two hours reached the top, 3000 or 4000 feet high, and looking back, had a fine view of the plain and town of Zacapa. He says,

"Crossing the ridge, we reached a bold precipitous spur, and very soon saw before us another extensive plain, and afar off, the town of Chiquimula, with its giant church. On each side were immense ravines, and the opposite heights were covered with pale and rose-coloured mimosa. We descended by a long and zigzag path, and reached the plain, on which were growing corn, cochineal, and plantain. Once more fording a

stream, we ascended a bank, and at two o'clock entered Chiquimula, the head of the department of that name."

In the centre of the plaza a fountain, shaded by palm-trees, was surrounded by women filling their water-jars. Facing the Plaza were the church and cabildo.

"On one corner," says Mr. Stephens, "was a house, to which we were attracted by the appearance of a woman at the door. I may call her a lady, for she wore a frock not open behind, and shoes and stockings, and had a face of uncommon interest, dark, and with finely-pencilled eyebrows. To heighten the effect of her appearance she gave us a gracious welcome to her house, and in a few minutes the shed was lumbered with our multifarious luggage."

The number of ruined churches in Central America is remarkable, as bearing on the declining condition of the country. Many of the churches, and even of the old Spanish towns, seem destined to be overgrown with forest trees in the same manner as Dupais, Waldeck, and Stephens have found the ruined temples of Central America and Yucatan.

Walking down to the edge of the table of land, Mr. Stephens saw what had attracted his attention at a great distance—a large church in ruins. It was seventy-five feet in front, and two hundred and fifty feet in depth, and the walls were ten feet thick. The façade was adorned with ornaments and figures of saints larger than life. The roof had fallen. The inside was filled with masses of stone and mortar, and a thick growth of trees.

"It was built by the Spaniards on the site of the old Indian village, but having been twice shattered by earthquakes, the inhabitants had deserted, and built the town where it now stands. The ruined village was now occupied as a campo santo or burial-place; inside the church were the graves of the principal inhabitants, and in the niches of the wall were the bones of priests and monks, with their names written under them. Outside were the graves of the common people, untended and uncared for, with the barrow of laced sticks which had carried the body to the grave laid upon the top, and slightly covered with earth. The bodies had decayed, the dirt fallen in, and the graves were yawning. Around this scene of desolation and death, nature was rioting in beauty; the ground was covered with flowers, and parrots on every bush and tree, and flying in flocks over our heads, wanton in gaiety of colours, with senseless chattering disturbed the stillness of the grave."

On returning to the town he found about twelve hundred soldiers, of ferocious and banditti like character, parading in the plaza.

"Convicts were peeping through the gratings of the prison, and walking in chains on the plaza. Officers were mounted on prancing mules or very small horses, almost hidden in saddle-cloth and armour.

In the village of San Estevan, on the route to the ruins of Copan, amid a miserable collection of thatched huts, stood a gigantic church, like that at Chiquimula, in ruins. This district had a little before been scourged by civil war.

From the top of the mountain, where he had, at a great distance, a view of the town of Chiquimula, he beheld rising above a few thatched huts, another gigantic and roofless church. On heights apparently inaccessible, the wild hut of the Indian appeared, with his milpa or patch of Indian corn.

"Clouds gathered around the mountains, and for an hour we rode in the rain; when

the sun broke through, we saw the mountain tops still towering above us, and on our right far below us, a deep valley. We descended, and found it narrower and more beautiful than any we had yet seen, bounded by ranges of mountains several thousand feet high, and having on its left a range of extraordinary beauty, with a red soil of sandstone, without any brush of underwood, and covered with gigantic pines. In front, rising above the miserable huts of the village, and seeming to bestride the valley, was the gigantic church of St. John the Hermit, reminding me of the church of St. John in the Wilderness of Judea, but the situation was even more beautiful. At four o'clock we saw, on a high table on the left, the village of Jocotan, with another gigantic church.

"At six o'clock we rose upon a beautiful table land, on which stood another gigantic church. It was the seventh we had seen that day, and coming upon them in a region of desolation, and by mountain paths which human hands had never attempted to improve, their colossal grandeur and costliness were startling, and gave evidence of a *retrograding and expiring people*. This stood in a more desolate place than any we had yet seen. The grass was green, the sod unbroken even by a mule path, not a human being was in sight, and even the gratings of the prison had no one looking through them."

A Hacienda.—The hacienda of San Antonio was situated in a wildly beautiful country. It consisted of a clearing for a cow-yard and a milpa, or plantation, of maize; tobacco and plantains were also cultivated.

"The house," says Mr. Stephens, "was built of poles plastered with mud, and against the wall, in front of the door, was a figure of the Saviour on the cross, on a white cotton cloth, hung round with votive offerings. A naked child, which the mother carried in her arms, was called Maria de los Angeles. While supper was in preparation, the master of the house arrived, a swarthy grim-looking fellow, with a broad-brimmed sombrero and huge whiskers, and mounted on a powerful young horse, which he was just breaking to the mountain roads; when he knew that we were strangers asking hospitality, his harsh features relaxed, and he repeated the welcome the woman had given us.

"They asked us about our wives, and we learned that our simple-minded host had two, one of them lived at Hocotan, and that he passed a week alternately with each. He assisted us in swinging our hammocks, and about nine o'clock we drove out the dogs and pigs, lighted cigars, and went to bed. Including servants, women, and children, we numbered eleven in the room. All around were little balls of fire, shining and disappearing with the puffs of the cigars. One by one these went out, and we fell asleep.

A Thunder-storm.—"The road lay through a thick forest: very soon the clouds became blacker than ever. On the left was a range of naked mountains,—the old stone quarries of Copan, along which the thunder rolled fearfully, and the lightning wrote angry inscriptions on its sides. An English tourist in the United States admits the superiority of our thunder and lightning. I am pertinacious on all points of national honour, but concede this in favour of the tropics. The rain fell as if flood-gates were opened from above; and while my mule was slipping and sliding through the mud I lost my road."

The River Copan.—Mr. Stephens says, the Guadalquiver cannot be more beautiful than this river.

Ascending an eminence afterwards, he saw a large field with stone fences and bars, and cattle-yard. It seemed to resemble a Westchester farm in new England. He entered by a gate, and rode up through a fine park to a long, low, substantial-looking *hacienda*. It belonged to a Don Clementino.

"The family consisted of a widow with a large family of children, the principal of whom was Don Clementino a young man of twenty-one, and a sister of about sixteen or seventeen, a beautiful fair-haired girl."

There was at the time, a party of young people in holiday dresses, mules with fanciful saddles, were tied to the post of the piazza. The Don was dressed in white jacket and trousers, braided and embroidered, white-cotton cap, covered by a *steeple-crowned* glazed hat, with a silver cord as a band, and a silver ball with a pointed bit of steel as a cockade, and red and yellow stripes under the brim. This young Don was the *beau ideal* of impudence and ignorance. After asking very silly questions of Mr. Stephens, he picked up a guitar, danced off to his own music, and sat down on the earthen floor of the piazza to play cards.

Preparations were, at the same time, going on for a wedding, to be celebrated at a house two leagues distant, a little before dark.

The young men and girls were dressed for the visit. All were mounted, and, "for the first time," says Mr. Stephens, "I admired exceedingly the fashion of the country in riding. My admiration was called forth by the sister of Don Clementino and the happy young gallant who accompanied her. Both rode the same mule, and on the same saddle. She sat sideways before him; his right arm encircled her waist; at starting the mule was restive, and he was obliged, from necessity, to support her in her seat, to draw her close to himself; her ear invited a whisper, and when she turned her face towards him her lips almost touched his."

Don Clementino had "a fine mule gaily caparisoned, swung a large basket-hilted sword through a strap in the saddle, buckled on a pair of enormous spurs, and mounting, wound his *poucha* around his waist, so that the hilt of the sword appeared about six inches above it; giving the animal a sharp thrust with his spurs, he drove her up the steps, through the piazza, and down the other side, he started to overtake the others."

The supper consisted of fried beans, fried eggs, and tortillas. The beans and eggs were served on heavy silver dishes, and the tortillas were laid in a pile by his side. There were no plate, knife, fork, or spoon.

Mr. Stephens slept in an outbuilding constructed of small poles and thatched, and for the whole paid eighteen cents and three-quarters. He gave a pair of earrings to a woman whom he supposed to be a servant, but whom he found was only a visiter. At this, though a private residence, he paid as almost everywhere else, for every thing.

The Don afterwards persuaded Mr. Stephens to buy his mule, and mounted on which he ascended the great Sierra, which divides the streams running into the Atlantic from those that flow into the Pacific Ocean. The scenery was wild and grand, but it rained heavily. When descending, the clouds cleared off, and an almost boundless plain opened to view, extending from the foot of the sierra; afar off, standing alone in the wilderness, rose the great church Esquipulas.

On entering the town in the evening, he rode up to the convent.

"The whole household of the cura, turned out to assist, and in a few minutes the mules were munching corn in the yard, while I was installed in the seat of honour in the convent. It was by far the largest and best building in the place.

This cura was a young delicate man under thirty. He was dressed in a long, black bombazet robe, drawn tight around the neck, with a cross and rosary suspended. His name was Jesus Maria Guttierrez.

The matin bell called the people to mass. Groups of Indian women knelt

around the altar, with white mantillas flowing down from over their heads, and without shoes or stockings.

Here is the great church of the pilgrimage, the holy place of Central America. Every year, on the 15th of January, pilgrims visit it. They come even from Peru and Mexico; the latter being a journey not exceeded in hardship by the pilgrimage to Mecca. As in the East, "it is not forbidden to trade during the pilgrimage," and when there are no wars to make the roads unsafe, eighty thousand people have assembled among the mountains to barter and pay homage to "our Lord of Esquipulas."

"The town of Esquipulas contains a population of about 1500 Indians. There was one street nearly a mile long, with mud houses on each side; but most of the houses were shut, being occupied only during the time of the fair. At the head of this street, on elevated ground, stood the great church.

"Ascending by a flight of massive stone steps in front of the church, we reached a noble platform a hundred and fifty feet broad, and paved with bricks a foot square. The view from this platform of the great plain and the high mountains around was magnificent; and the church, rising in solitary grandeur in a region of wildness and desolation, seemed almost the work of enchantment. The façade was rich with stucco ornaments and figures of saints larger than life; at each angle was a high tower, and over the dome a spire, rearing aloft in the air the crown of that once proud power which wrested the greatest part of America from its rightful owners, ruled it for three centuries with a rod of iron, and now has not within it a foot of land or a subject to boast of.

"We entered the church by a lofty portal, rich in sculptured ornaments. Inside was a nave with two aisles, separated by rows of pilasters nine feet square, and a lofty dome guarded by angels with expanded wings. On the walls were pictures, some drawn by artists of Guatemala and others that had been brought from Spain, and the recesses were filled with statues, some of which were admirably well executed. The pulpit was covered with gold-leaf, and the altar protected by an iron railing with a silver balustrade, ornamented with six silver pillars about two feet high, and two angels standing as guardians on the steps. In front of the altar, in a rich shrine, is an image of the Saviour on the cross, 'our Lord of Esquipulas,' to whom the church is consecrated, famed for its power of working miracles. Every year thousands of devotees ascend the steps of his temple on their knees, or laden with a heavy cross, who are not permitted to touch the sacred image, but go away contented in obtaining a piece of riband stamped with the words, 'Dulce nombre de Jesus.'"

On leaving Esquipulas the road ascends the mountain of Quezaltepeque, the brows of which are thickly wooded, muddy, and full of gullies. The route on the heights commands a splendid view of the plain of Esquipulas, with the great sierra behind, covered with lofty pines, the great church, and the village of *Quezaltepeque*. The descent on the opposite side is very precipitous, with mud-holes and deep gulleys.

A narrow path leads along the very edge of the precipice, part of the way on a narrow overhanging ledge, and in other places by a path constructed on the face of the rock to the bottom of the ravine. The ravine at the bottom extends between precipitous walls of dark limestone, deep, narrow, and remarkably savage in aspect, with a stream rolling through it over rocks.

From this wild pass to the *richuelo* of San Jacinto, there is no cultivation, and the whole country remains in primeval wildness.

On leaving San Jacinto, where he was most hospitably treated by the padre,* Mr. Stephens remarks,

"For the first time in a long while we had a level road. The land was rich and productive: brown sugar sold for three cents a pound; and white lump, even under their slow process of making it, for eight cents; and indigo could be raised for two shillings a pound."

On the following day, having lodged in a place filled with negroes, children, and flies, he travelled onwards, and had on his right the Montagua River and the mountains of Vera Paz. The road was level; it was excessively hot; and late in the afternoon, he came upon a table-land covered with trees, bearing a flower, looking like apple-trees in blossom, and cactus or tunos, with branches from three to fifteen feet long.

He rode into Chimalapa, a long straggling village with a large church, but no cura, and he proceeded to the Cabildo, or the town-house, which was also used as a sort of caravansary for travellers; a remnant of oriental usages introduced from Spain, into her former American possessions.

Next day he travelled onwards, and at the foot of a high mountain, a cluster of cocoa-nut-trees, glittered in the sunbeams like plates of silver, and concealed *Guastatoya*, a town beautifully situated, overlooking a valley, waving with Indian corn. Here, at the house of the brother of Donna Bartola, his hostess of Guelan, he had a good supper of eggs, frijoles, chocolate, and tortillas. Leaving *Guastatoya*, he rode for some distance through a cultivated country, with the fields divided by fences.

Next day, as he travelled onwards, the country presented magnificent views. He saw, at a great distance below the heights, in an amphitheatre of mountains, the village of El Puente, the ground around which was white and trodden hard by caravans of mules. On descending to the village, he crossed a bridge, supported by a stone arch, thrown across a ravine with a cataract foaming through it. This point was completely encircled by mountains, "wild to sublimity, and reminding him of some of the finest parts of Switzerland."

He then says, "We passed a village of huts, situated on the ridge of the mountains,

* "The *Padre* of San Jacinto appears to have been a man above six feet, broad-shouldered, and with a protuberance in front that required support to keep it from falling. His dress consisted of a shirt and pair of pantaloons, with button-holes begging for employment; but he had a heart as big as his body, and as open as his wearing apparel; and when I told him that I had ridden from Esquipulas that day, he said I must remain a week to recruit; as to going the next day he would not hear of it; and, in fact, very soon I found that it was impossible without other aid, for my abominable muleteer filled up the measure of his iniquities by falling ill with a violent fever.

"The padre insisted on my taking his own *câhe*, which was unusually neat, and had a mosquito-netting. It was my best bed since I left Colonel M'Donald's at Belize. Before I was up he stood over me with a flask of *agua ardiente*; soon after came chocolate, with a roll of sweet bread; and finding that it was impossible to get away that day, I became a willing victim to his hospitality. At nine o'clock we had breakfast; at twelve, fruit; at two, dinner; at five, chocolate and sweet bread; and at eight, supper; with constant intermediate invitations to *aqua ardiente*, which the padre, with his hand on that prominent part of his own body, said was good for the stomach. In every thing, except good feeling, he was the complete antipodes of the Cura of Esquipulas.

commanding on both sides a view of an extensive valley 4000 or 5000 feet below us. Continuing on this magnificent ridge, we descended upon a table of rich land, and saw a gate opening into grounds which reminded me of park scenery in England; undulating, and ornamented with trees. In the midst of this stood the hacienda of San José, a long, low, stone building, with a corridor in front; it was one of those which, when least expected, touch a tender chord, call up cherished associations, make a traveller feel as though he could linger around it for ever, and particularly welcome to us, as we had not breakfasted.

"It was a *hacienda de ganados*, or cattle hacienda, and had hundreds of cattle roaming over it; but all that it could give us to eat was eggs, tortillas, and beans, softened in hot water; the last being about equal to a basket of fresh chips. The road from this place lay over a table of land, green and rich as an European lawn, ornamented with trees, and 'with features of scenery peculiarly English;' muleteers, who had left the city at midnight, were lying under the shade of the trees, their saddles and cargoes piled over each other, and their mules pasturing near. Along the table-land, there were ruins of huts, and 'if adorned instead of being deformed by the hand of man, this would be a region of poetic beauty.' Indians, men and women, with loads on their backs;—each party carried a bundle of rockets. They were all returning from the 'capitol,' as they proudly call Guatemala to their villages among the mountains. Two days before, the Indian chief, Carrera, had re-entered the city with his soldiers."

After giving some account of the new capital of Central America, Mr. Stephens, on the 17th of December, set out on an excursion to *La Antigua Guatemala* and the Pacific Ocean, accompanied by a young man, who wished to ascend the volcano de Agua. He says:

"As we continued, the mountains turned to the left, and on the other side of the stream were a few openings cultivated with cochineal, into the very hollow of the base. Again the road turned and then ran straight, making a vista of more than a mile between the mountains, at the end of which was the *Antigua* (Guatemala), standing in a delightful valley, shut in by mountains and hills that always retain their verdure, watered by two rivers that supply numerous fountains, with a climate in which heat or cold never predominates; yet this city, surrounded by more natural beauty than any location I ever saw, has, perhaps, undergone more calamities than any city that was ever built. We passed the gate and rode through the suburbs, in the opening of the valley. On one side of which was a new house that reminded me of an Italian villa."

A large cochineal plantation extended to the base of the mountain. He crossed a stream bearing the poetical name of El Rio Pensativo, on the other side was a fine fountain, and at the corner of the street was the ruined church of San Domingo.

"The route from Old Guatemala towards the Pacific was," says Mr. Stephens, "level and wooded. We passed a trapiche, or sugar-mill, worked by oxen, and before daylight reached the village of Masagua, four leagues distant, built in a clearing cut out of the woods, at the entrance of which we stopped under a grove of orange-trees, and by the light of the moon, filled our pockets and *alforgas* with the shining fruit. Daylight broke upon us in a forest of gigantic trees, from seventy-five to a hundred feet high, and from twenty to twenty-five feet in circumference, with creepers winding around their trunks and hanging from the branches. The road was merely a path through the forest, formed by cutting away shrubs and branches. The freshness of the morning was delightful. We had descended from the table-land, called the *tierras templadas*, and were now in the *tierras calientes*; but at nine o'clock the glare and heat of the sun did not penetrate the thick shade of the woods. In some places the branches of the trees, trimmed by the machete of a passing muleteer, and hung with a grapery of vines and creepers, bearing red and purple flowers, formed, for a long distance, natural arches more beautiful than any ever fashioned by man, and there were parrots and other birds, of beautiful plumage flying among the trees; among them, guacamayas, or *great macaws*,

clad in red, yellow, and green. There were also vultures and scorpions, and, running across the road and up the trees, innumerable iguanas or lizards, from an inch to three feet long. The road was a mere track among the trees. Muleteers, bringing up goods from the port to the capital, were met twice; otherwise the route was desolate."

Twelve miles from Old Guatemala, Mr. Stephens stopped at the hacienda of Naranjo, occupied by a major-domo, who looked after the cattle of the proprietor, roaming wild in the woods: the house stood in the midst of a clearing, built of poles, with a cattle-yard in front. He "spied a cow with a calf, which was a sign of milk." The major-domo, with a lazo, caught the calf first, and then the cow, and hauled her up by the horns to a post.

"The hut," he observes, "had but one guacal, or drinking-shell, made of a gourd, and it was so small that we sat down by the cow so as not to lose much time. We had bread, chocolate, and sausages, and after a ride of twenty-four miles made a glorious breakfast; but we exhausted the poor cow, and I was ashamed to look the calf in the face."

The great plain over which he travelled, as far as Overo, about forty miles, was densely wooded and uncultivated, the soil rich and capable of maintaining, with little labour, thousands of inhabitants. Passing by Overo the country was more open.

The River Michatoyat, whence the *path* first meets the waters of the Pacific, is the outlet of the Lake of Amatitlan, and is said to be navigable from the Falls of San Pedro Martyr, seventy miles from its mouth; but there were no boats upon it, and its banks are still in a wilderness state. The crossing place was at the old mouth of the river.

IZTAKA.—The port at the mouth of this river is an open roadstead, without bay, headland, rock, or reef, or any mark whatever to distinguish it from the adjacent shores. "There is no light at night, and vessels at sea take their bearings from the great volcanoes of the Antigua, more than sixty miles inland. A buoy was anchored outside of the breakers, with a cable attached, and under the sheds were three large launches for embarking and disembarking the cargoes of the few vessels which resort to this place." At the time of Mr. Stephens' visit, a ship from Bordeaux lay off, more than a mile from the shore. Her boat had some time before landed the supercargo and passengers, since which she had had no communication with the land. Behind the sandbar were a few Indian huts and Indians nearly naked. Generally the sea is, as its name imports, pacific, and the waves roll calmly to the shore; but in the smoothest times there is a breaker, and to pass this, as a part of the fixtures of the port, an anchor is dropped outside with a buoy attached, and a long cable passing from the buoy is secured on the shore. It was from this place that Alvarado fitted out his armament and embarked with his followers to dispute with Pizarro the riches of Peru. Around the base of the volcano *do Agua*, are cultivated fields and a belt of forest and verdure extends to the top. Opposite there is another volcano with its slopes wooded with magnificent trees. Between the two there is a convent of Domi-

nican friars, and a beautiful valley in which there are hot springs, smoking for more than a mile along the road, near which the nopals, or cochineal plantations, commence. On both sides are high clay walls, and Mr. Stephens says these *nopals* are more extensive than those of the Antigua, and more valuable, as though only twenty-five miles from it, the climate is so different that they produce two crops in each season.

Here was one of the largest cochineal plantations, which contained 400,000 plants. It was in charge of a citizen of the United States, from Rheinbeck Landing, on the Hudson River, where his father then kept a *store*. He had been a clerk in New York, and then in Mexico. Induced by a large offer, and a strong disposition to ramble and see the country, he accepted a proposal from another American, who exhibited wild beasts, to accompany him.

"His business was to go on before the caravan, *hire a place, give notice*, and make preparations for the exhibition of the animals. In this capacity he had travelled all over Mexico, and from thence to Guatemala. It was seven years since he left home, and since parting with his American employer, he had not spoken a word of his own language, and as he spoke it now it was more than half Spanish."

The road from this place to New Guatemala leads across a plain with high, nearly precipitous, and verdant elevations on the left, for about a league, where the ascent is by a steep height to the table-land of Guatemala. This road Mr. Stephens considered at the time the most delightful ride he had had in the country.

Mr. Stephens visited the Lake of Amatitlan ; it was dark when he reached the top of the high range of mountains which bounds this lake.

"Looking down," he says, "it seemed like a gathering of fog in the bottom of a deep valley. The descent was by a rough zigzag path on the side of a mountain, very steep, and in the extreme darkness, difficult and dangerous. We felt happy when we reached the bank of the lake, though still a little above it. The mountains rose round it like a wall, and cast over it a gloom deeper than the shade of night. We rode for some distance with the lake on our left, and a high and perpendicular mountain-side on our right. A cold wind had succeeded the intense heat of the day, and when we reached Amatitlan, I was perfectly chilled."

He afterwards embarked in a goelette brig, the only vessel on the Pacific, which carried the Central American flag. This vessel was built in England for a cutter, and called the *Britannia*. He knew not by what means this craft reached the Pacific, where she was "bought by the state of San Salvador, when at war with Guatemala, and called by that state's Indian name of Cuscatlan. Afterwards, she was sold to an Englishman, who called her *Eugenia*, and by him to Captain D'Yriarte, who called her *La Cosmopolita*."

Sailing along the coast, they passed the volcanoes of San Salvador, San Vincente, San Miguel, Tolega, Momotombo, Managua, Nindirí, Nasaya, and Nicaragua, forming an uninterrupted chain.

Mr. Stephens remarks, "This coast has well been described as bristling with volcanic cones. For two days we lay with sails flapping in sight of Cape Blanco, the upper headland of the Gulf of Nicoya. On the afternoon of the 31st we entered the gulf. In a line with a point of the cape was an island of rock, with high, bare, and precipitous sides, and the top covered with verdure. It was about sunset ; for nearly an hour the

sky and sea seemed blazing with the reflection of the departing luminary, and the islands of rock seemed like a fortress with turrets. It was a glorious farewell view. I passed my last night on the Pacific, with the highlands of the Gulf of Nicoya close around us.

"Early in the morning we had the tide in our favour, and very soon leaving the main body of the gulf, turned off to the right, and entered a beautiful little cove, forming the harbour of Caldera. In front was the range of mountains of Aguacate, on the left the old port of Pont Arinas, and on the right the volcano of San Pablo. On the shore was a long low house, set upon piles, with a tile roof, and near it were three or four thatched huts and two canoes. We anchored in front of the houses, and apparently without exciting the attention of a soul on shore."

He says that, "All the ports of Central America on the Pacific are unhealthy—but this was considered deadly. I had entered, without apprehension, cities where this plague was raging, but here, as I looked ashore, there was a death-like stillness that was startling."

From Caldera the country inland is level, rich, and uncultivated, with here and there a wretched cattle hacienda, the owners of which live in the towns. Herds are stationed on the estates, from time to time, to gather and number the cattle, which roam wild in the woods. One hacienda, called San Felipe, belonged to a Welchman engaged in mining. It was in a large clearing, and a fine situation, with neat buildings and good fences. At the hacienda of San Mateo, situated in the bocca of the mountain of Aguacate, the route to the high grounds is steep, wild, and rugged.

"As we toiled up the ravine," says Mr. Stephens, "we heard before us a loud noise that sounded like distant thunder, but regular and continued, and becoming louder as we advanced; and at length we came out on a small clearing, and saw on the side of the mountain a neat frame building of two stories, with a light and graceful balcony in front, and alongside was the thundering machine which had startled us by its noise. Strangers from the other side of the Atlantic were piercing the sides of the mountain, and pounding its stones into dust in search for gold. The whole range, the very ground which our horses spurned with their hoofs, contained that treasure for which man forsakes kindred and country.

"The superintendent was a German from Friesburg. His house was furnished with chairs, sofa, and books, and had in my eyes a delightful appearance; but the view without was more so. The stream which turned the immense pounding machine had made the spot, from time immemorial, a *descansadera*, or resting-place for muleteers. All around were mountains, and directly in front, one rose to a great height, receding and covered to the top with trees."

This German had been superintendent of the Quelrada del Ingenio for about three years.

"The company which he represented was called the *Anglo Costa Rican economical Mining Company*. It had been in operation three years without losing any thing, which was considered doing so well that it had increased its capital and was about continuing on a larger scale. The machine, which had just been set up, was a new German patent, called a machine for extracting gold by the *Zillenthal Patent Self-acting Cold Amalgamation Process* (I believe that I have omitted nothing), and its great value was, that it required no preliminary process; but by one continued and simple operation extracted the gold from the stone. It was an immense wheel of cast-iron, by which the stone, as it came from the mountain, was pounded into powder; this passed into troughs filled with water, and from them into a reservoir containing vases, where the gold detached itself from the other particles, and combined with the quicksilver with which the vases were provided."

There were several mines under his charge, that of Corvallio was the largest. The few geologists who have visited Western Central America have asserted that immense wealth lies buried in the mountain of Aguacate ; and that its localities are most evident. The lodes, or mineral veins, run north and south, in strata of greenstone, porphyry, and basaltic porphyry, and average about three feet in width. In some places, side cuts, or lateral excavations are made from east to west, and in others, shafts are sunk until they strike the vein.

"After leaving the mines," Mr. Stephens observes, "as we continued ascending, every moment the view became more grand and beautiful; and suddenly from a height of six thousand feet, I looked down upon the Pacific, the Gulf of Nicoya, and, sitting like a bird upon the waters, our brig, *La Cosmopolita* ; and here on the very highest point, in the wildest and most beautiful spots that ever men chose for their abodes, were the huts of the miners. The sun touched the sea, lighted up the surface of the water, and softened the rugged mountains, it was the most beautiful scene I ever saw, and the loveliest view was the last ; for suddenly it became dark, and very soon the darkest night I ever knew came on; as we descended, the woods were so thick that even in the daytime they shut out the light, and in some places the road was cut through steep hills higher than our heads, and roofed over by the dense foliage. Hezoos (the guide) was before me with a white hat and jacket, and had a white dog running by his side, but I could not see the outline of his figure. The road was steep but good, and I did not pretend to direct the mule. In one of the darkest passages Hezoos stopped, and, with a voice that made the woods ring, cried out, 'a lion, a lion.' I was startled, but he dismounted and lighted a cigar. This was cool, I thought; he relieved me by telling me that the lion was a different animal from the roarer of the African desert, small, frightened by a shout, and only ate children."

As he advanced inland, the country improved, and for a league before entering Alaguela, the road was lined on both sides with houses 300 or 400 yards apart built of whitewashed adobes, and the fronts of some ornamented with paintings. Several had chalked in red, on each side the door, the figure of a soldier, with his musket shouldered and bayonet fixed, "large as life and stiff as a martinet." The rows of trees on both sides of the road were bearing beautiful flowers, which, in some places, "completely embowered the houses." In the fields the growing of sugar-canes was the chief culture ; every house had attached a small *trapiche*, or sugar-mill.

There are four cities in Costa Rica, all of which lie within the space of fifteen leagues; yet each has a different climate and different productions. Including the suburbs, *Alaguela* contains a population of about 10,000. The Plaza was beautifully situated, and the church, the cabildo, and the houses fronting it were handsome. The latter were long and low, with broad piazzas and large windows, having wooden balconies.

"It was Sunday," says Mr. Stephens, "and the inhabitants, cleanly dressed, were sitting on the piazzas, or with doors wide open, reclining in hammocks, or on high-backed wooden settees inside. The women were dressed like ladies, and some were handsome, and all white ; a respectable-looking old man, standing at the door of one of the best houses, called out 'Amigo,' 'friend,' and asked us who we were, whence we came, and whither we were going, recommending us to God at parting; and all along the street we were accosted in the same friendly spirit. Water was carried, from a great distance, to the town by women.

"Why a large town has grown up and been continued so far from this element of life

I do not know. The Spaniards found it a large Indian village, and as they immediately made the owners of the soil their drawers of water they did not feel the burden, nor do their descendants now.

"The volcano of Masaya was called by the Spaniards *El Infierno de Masaya*, or the Hell of Masaya."*

Mr. Stephens ascended to the crater of this volcano, which he says "was about a mile and a half in circumference, five or six hundred feet deep, with sides slightly sloping, and so regular in its proportions that it seemed an artificial excavation. The bottom was level, both sides and bottoms covered with grass, and it seemed an immense conical green basin. There were none of the fearful marks of a volcanic eruption; nothing to terrify or suggest an idea of *el infierno*; but, on the contrary, it was a scene of singular and quiet beauty. I descended to the edge of the crater, and walked along the edge, looking down into the area. Toward the other end was a growth of arbolitos or little trees, and in one place no grass grew, and the ground was black and loamy, like mud drying up."

Managua is described as beautifully situated on the banks of the lake.

Means of Intercourse.—On an ox-waggon, with the luggage and a stock of corn and grass for the mules during the intended voyage, they reached *Viejo*, "one of the most respectable-looking towns in Nicaragua. The house of the owner of the bongo was one of the largest in the place, and furnished with two mahogany sofas, made by a Yankee cabinet-maker in Lima, two looking-glasses with gilt frames, a French clock, gilt chairs with cane-bottoms, and two Boston rocking-chairs, which had made the passage round Cape Horn."

From this place he started for the port of Naguiscolo, seven leagues distant, through a forest. He overtook the bongo men, nearly naked, moving in single file, with the pilot at their head, and each carrying on his back an open network containing tortillas and provisions for the voyage. When he arrived at the port he found only a single hut, at which a woman was washing corn, with a naked child blotched with sores.

"In front was a large muddy plain, through the centre of which ran a straight cut called a canal, with an embankment on one side dry, the mud baked hard and bleached by the sun. In this ditch lay several bungoes high and dry, adding to the ugliness of the picture.

"The bongo in which we started was about forty feet long, dug out of the trunk of a guanacaste-tree, about five feet wide and nearly as deep, with the bottom round, and a *tollo*, or awning, round like the top of a market-waggon, made of matting and bull's hides, covered ten feet of the stern. Beyond were six seats across the sides of the bongo for the oarsmen. The whole front was necessary for the men, and in reality I had

* One historian, speaking of Nicaragua, says,—“There are burning mountains in this province the chief of which is Masaya, where the natives, at certain times, offered up maids, throwing them into it, thinking by their lives to appease the fire, that it might not destroy the country; and they went to it very cheerful.” And in another place he says, “Three leagues from the city of Masaya, being a burning mountain, the mouth of it being half a league in compass, and the depth within it 250 fathoms. There are no trees nor grass, but birds build without any disturbance from the fire. There is another mouth like that of a well about a bowshot over, the distance from which to the fire is about 150 fathoms, always boiling up, and that mass of fire often rises and gives a great light, so that it can be seen at a considerable distance. It moves from one side to the other, and sometimes roars so loud that it is dreadful, yet never casts up any thing but smoke and flame. The liquor never ceasing at the bottom, nor its boiling, imagining the same to be gold. F. Blase de Yniesta, of the order of St. Dominick, and two other Spaniards were let down into the first mouth in two baskets, with a bucket made of one piece of iron, and a long chain to draw up some of that fiery matter and know whether it was metal. The chain ran 150 fathoms, and as soon as it came to the fire the bucket melted, with some links of the chain in a very short time, and therefore they could not know what was below. They lay there that night without any want of fire or candles, and came out again in their baskets sufficiently frightened.”

This account is evidently much exaggerated.

only the part occupied by the awning where, with the mules as tenants in common, there were too many of us."

The sun was scorching, and under the awning the heat was insufferable. Following the coast at eleven o'clock they were opposite the volcano of Coseguina, a long dark mountain promontory, with another ridge running below it, and then an extensive plain covered with lava to the sea.

"Before we reached the volcano of Coseguina,* with its field of lava and its desolate shore, not a living being was in sight except my sleeping boatmen.

"Towards evening my men all woke; the wind was fair, but they took things quietly, and after supper hoisted sail. About twelve o'clock, by an amicable arrangement, I stretched myself on the pilot's bench under the tiller, and when I woke we had passed the volcano of Tigris, and were in an archipelago of islands more beautiful than the islands of Greece. The wind died away, and the boatmen, after plying a little while with the oars, again let fall the big stone and went to sleep. Outside the awning the heat of the sun was withering, under it the closeness was suffocating, and my poor mules had had no water since their embarkation. Fortunately, before they got tired we had a breeze, and at about four o'clock in the afternoon the big stone was dropped in the harbour of *La Union*, in front of the town. One ship was lying at anchor, a whaler from Chili, which had put in in distress and been condemned."

From this place he travelled to St. Miguel, and stopped on his way at the village of San Alejo, where the people were in a state of excitement from the report of an invasion from Honduras.

* The eruption of this volcano on the 20th of January, 1835, was one of the most awful in the history of volcanic eruptions. It greatly alarmed the people of Guatemala, 400 miles off; at Kingston, Jamaica, 800 miles distant, the reports heard were so distinct as to be considered guns of distress fired by ships at sea. "The face of nature was changed; the cone of the volcano was gone; a mountain and field of lava ran down to the sea; a forest, old as creation, had entirely disappeared, and two islands were formed in the sea; shoals were discovered, in one of which a large tree was fixed upside down; one river was completely choked up, and another formed, running in an opposite direction; seven men in the employ of my bungo proprietor ran down to the water, pushed off in a bungo, and were never heard of more; wild beasts, howling, left their caves in the mountains, and ounces, leopards, and snakes fled for shelter to the abodes of man."

A Mr. Savage, who was on that day on the side of the volcano of San Miguel, distant 120 miles, looking for cattle, saw at eight o'clock a dense cloud rising in the south in a pyramidal form, and heard a noise which sounded like the roaring of the sea. Soon after, there appeared amidst the clouds, bright, rose-coloured, forked lightning. "These appearances," says Mr. Stephens, "increased so far that his men became frightened, and said it was a ruina, and that the end of the world was nigh. Very soon he himself was satisfied that it was the eruption of a volcano. He returned to the town of San Miguel, and in riding felt three severe shocks of earthquake. The inhabitants were distracted with terror. Birds flew wildly through the streets, and blinded by the dust, fell dead on the ground. At four o'clock it was so dark that, as Mr. Savage says, he held up his hand before his eyes, and could not see it. Nobody moved without a candle which gave a dim and misty light, extending only a few feet. At this time the church was full, and could not contain half the people who wished to enter. The figure of the Virgin was brought out into the plaza and borne through the streets, followed by the inhabitants, with candles and torches, in penitential procession, crying upon the Lord to pardon their sins. Bells tolled, and during the procession there was another earthquake, so violent and long that it threw to the ground many people walking in the procession. The darkness continued till eleven o'clock the next day, when the sun was partially visible, but dim and hazy, and without any brightness. The dust on the ground was four inches thick, and branches of trees broke with its weight, and people were so disfigured by it that they could not be recognised.

At this time Mr. Savage set out for his hacienda at Sonzonate. He slept at the first village, and at two or three o'clock in the morning was roused by a report like the breaking of most terrific thunder, or the firing of thousands of cannon. This was the report which startled the people of Guatemala, when the commandant sallied out, supposing that the quartel was attacked, and which was heard at Kingston in Jamaica. It was accompanied by a most violent earthquake.

Riding up the principal street in San Salvador, he passed a "large church with its front fallen, and saw paintings on the walls, and an altar forty feet high, with columns, images sculptured and gilded, exposed to the open air."

The state of San Salvador he considers the richest in Central America, extending 180 miles along the shores of the Pacific, producing tobacco, the best indigo, and richest balsam in the world. In travelling over it, he says,

"We had mountains and rivers, valleys and immense ravines, and the three great volcanoes of San Miguel, San Vincente, and San Salvador, one or other of which was almost constantly in sight. The whole surface is volcanic; for miles the road lay over beds of decomposed lava, inducing the belief that here the whole shore of the Pacific is an immense arch over subterraneous fires. From the time of the independence this state stood foremost in the maintenance of liberal principles, and throughout, it exhibits an appearance of improvement, a freedom from bigotry and fanaticism, and a development of physical and moral energy not found in any other. The San Salvadoreans are the only men who speak of sustaining the integrity of the Republic as a point of national honour."

The Lempa was then a gigantic river rolling on to the Pacific. Three months before, he had seen it "a little stream among the mountains of Esquipulas." He was overtaken by a Don Carlos Rivas, "a leading liberal from Honduras, flying for life before *partisan soldiers of his own state*."

"We descended to the bank of the river, and followed it through a wild forest, which had been swept by a tornado, the trees still lying as they fell. At the crossing-place, the valley of the river was half a mile wide; but being the dry season, on this side there was a broad beach of sand and stones."

After crossing the Lempa, he says,

"We slept upon our luggage on the bank of the river, and before daylight were again in the saddle. Crossing a beautiful plain, running to the base of the volcano of San Vincente, we left our animals at a hut, and walked some distance to a stream in a deep ravine, which we followed upward to its source, coming from the very base of the volcano. The water was warm, and had a taste of vitriol, and the banks were incrustated with white vitriol and flour of sulphur. At a distance of one or two hundred yards it formed a basin, where the water was hotter than the highest grade of my Reaumur's thermometer. In several places we heard subterranean noises, and towards the end of the ravine, on the slope of one side, was an orifice about thirty feet in diameter, from which, with a terrific noise, boiling water was spouted into the air. This is called El Infernillo, or the 'Infernal Regions.'

"We arrived at *Cojutepeque*, until within two days the temporary capital, beautifully situated at the foot of a small extinct volcano. Its green and verdant sides, broken only by a winding path, and on the top a fortress, which Morazan had built as his last rallying-place."

Mr. Stephens entered by a fine gate, and through suburbs teeming with fruit and flower trees, the meanness of the houses was hardly noticed. Advancing, he saw heaps of rubbish, and large houses with their fronts cracked and falling, marks of the earthquake, which had broken it up as the seat of government, and almost depopulated the city.

On leaving San Salvador at three o'clock the next morning, a stream of fire was rolling down the volcano of Izalco, bright, but paler by the moonlight.

On the right, after passing an Indian village, they looked down the perpendicular side to a plain 2000 feet below; and in front, on another part of the same

plain, were the lake and town of Aguachapa. Instead of going direct to the town, they turned round the foot of the mountain, and came into a field smoking with hot springs. The ground was incrustated with sulphur, and dried and baked by subterranean fires. In some places were large orifices, from which steam rushed out violently and with noise, and in others large pools or lakes, one of them 150 feet in circumference, of dark brown water, boiling, with monstrous bubbles, three or four feet high. All around, for a great extent, the earth was in a state of combustion, burning their boots and frightening the horses, and they were obliged to be careful to keep the horses from falling through. At some distance was a stream of sulphur-water, which they followed up to a broad basin, made a dam with stones and bushes, and had a most refreshing warm bath.

Below the table-land on which the town stands, a vast plain opens, and they passed the beautiful Lake of Aguachapa.

On reaching the Rio Paz, on both sides trees spread their branches over the water. The River of Peace, so called, was then, and may be now, the boundary of deadly war between Guatemala and San Salvador.

On crossing, they were in the state of Guatemala, on the banks of a wild river without any visible path, and then in a precarious situation. They were fortunate in finding a path which turned off to the left, and terminated in the Camino Real, leading from the fording place. The face of the country was entirely changed, broken and stony, and they saw no one till they reached the hacienda of Palmita. This, too, seemed desolate. They entered the yard and did not see a single person till they pushed open the door of the house.

At twelve o'clock on the following day, they reached the *Rio de los Esclavos*, a wild and majestic river, the bridge across which is the greatest structure erected under Spanish dominion in Central America. They crossed it; the village beyond it was a mere collection of huts, standing in a magnificent situation near the river, and above which mountains rose, covered to the summits with pines. Every predatory or fighting expedition between Guatemala and San Salvador passed through this miserable village. Twice within one week Morazan's army was so straitened for provisions, and pressed by fear of pursuit, that huts were torn down for fire-wood, and bullocks slain and eaten half raw in the street, without bread or tortillas.

After leaving this village the country was covered with lava. The hacienda of Coral de Piedra was passed, situated on the crest of a stony mountain, looking like a castle, very large, with a church and village, where, although it rained, they did not stop, as the whole village seemed to be intoxicated.

"The next morning, one of the mules was missing, and we did not get off till eight o'clock. Towards evening we descended a long hill, and entered the plain of Guatemala. It looked beautiful, and I never thought I should be so happy to see it again. I had finished a journey of 1200 miles, and the gold of Peru could not have tempted me to undertake it again."

CHAPTER V.

ROUTE FROM GUATEMALA TO PALENQUE.

EXCEPTING the account given by Juarros, and those detached descriptions in the large and lengthy work of the French traveller, Dupaix,* we know but little of the country north of Guatemala to the frontiers of Mexico. The most recent descriptions are the sketches made by Mr. Stephens on his route from Guatemala to the ruins of Palenque. After ceasing to look for "a government, as a hopeless search in the divided anarchical country to which he was sent as a minister from the United States, he packed up his diplomatic uniform and some other articles, and forwarded them to his own republic. He then tells us—

"I was once more my own master, at liberty to go where I pleased, *at my own expense*, and immediately we commenced making arrangements for our journey to Palenque. We had no time to lose; it was a thousand miles distant, and the rainy season was approaching, during which part of the road was impassable. There was no one in the city who had ever made the journey. The archbishop, on his *exit from Guatemala* eight years before, had fled by that road, and since his time it had not been travelled by any resident of Guatemala; but we learned enough to satisfy us that it would be *less difficult to reach Palenque from New York than from where we were.*"

Having provided passports, he was fortified with the best security he could have for his journey. In Guatemala every man has a small cot made to double with a hinge, which may be taken down and wrapped up, with pillows and bed-clothes, in an ox-hide, to carry on a journey. Besides the horse or mule to ride on, each traveller requires at least another mule, and two *petacas*, trunks made of ox-hides, lined with thin straw matting having a top like that of a box, secured by a clumsy iron chain, with large padlocks; containing, if complete, besides other things, generally a hammock, blanket, one pair of sheets, a pillow, which with *alforgos* of provisions, make one load for a cargo mule. Besides these, Mr. Stephens travelled with one spare cargo mule and a spare horse to relieve the others, in all, six animals; and two *mozos*, or men of all work. He says,

"We set out for Quezaltenango, but intended to turn aside, and visit ruins.

"Decending to the plain, we entered the village of San Antonio, occupied entirely by Indians. The cura's house stood on an open *plaza*, with a fine fountain in front, and the huts of the Indians were built with stalks of sugar-cane.

"We were now entering upon a region of country which, at the time of the conquest, was the most populous, the most civilised, and best cultivated in Guatemala. The people who still occupied it were the descendants of those found there by Alvarado, and perhaps four-fifths were Indians of untainted blood. For three centuries they had submitted quietly to the dominion of the whites, but the rising of Carrera had waked them

* This work on the "Antiquities of Mexico," &c., published in Paris in 1834-5, awakened the attention of the learned in Europe. His expedition to Palenque was made in 1807. He travelled south as far as Ocosingo, near Comitán, from the city of Mexico, under a commission from the government, attended by a draughtsman, secretary, and a detachment of dragoons.

up to a recollection of their fathers, and it was rumoured *that their eyes rolled strangely upon the white men as the enemies of their race.*"

Here, for the first time, he saw fields of wheat and peach trees. The country was *poetically* called *Europa*; and though the Volcano de Agua still reared in full sight its stupendous head, it resembled the finest part of England on a magnificent scale. But he says, "it was not like travelling in England."

The road then led over a magnificent table-land, in some parts, and for a considerable distance, lined on each side with trees. In the afternoon they reached the brink of an immense precipice, in which, at a great distance, he saw "the molina or wheat-mill, looking like a New England factory."

At Patzum, a large Indian village, they turned off to the right from the high road to Mexico by a by-path; the country was beautiful, and in parts well cultivated. This great table-land was elevated from 5000 to 6000 feet. He passed two mounds, such as are seen in the United States.

Immense barrancas, or abrupt ravines, were also passed. Where these occur, the table-land is, according to Mr. Stephens, "level to the very edge where the earth seemed to have broken off and sunk," and he looked down into a frightful abyss 2000 or 3000 feet deep. Gigantic trees at the bottom of the immense cavity looked like shrubs. For some distance before reaching the Indian village of Tecpan Guatemala, the road was shaded by trees and shrubs, the aloes were thirty feet high. The long street by which he entered was paved with stones from the ruins of the old city, and filled with drunken Indians. At the head of this street was a *fine* plaza, with a large cabildo, and twenty Indian alguazils under the corridor, with wands of office, in full suits of blue cloth, the trousers open at the knees, and with a cloak with a hood like the Arab *burnouse*. The church, one of the most magnificent in the country, was the second built after the conquest. The façade was 200 feet, very lofty, with turrets and spires, gorgeously ornamented with figures. On its high platform were Indians in picturesque costume.

This city of Patinamit belonged to the ancient kingdom of Kachiquel. It was also called Tecpan Guatemala, which according to *Vasques*, means "the Royal House of Guatemala," from which he infers that it was the capital of the Kachiquel kings. Fuentes is of opinion that *Tecpan Guatemala* was the fortress or arsenal of the kingdom, and that Guatemala was the kingly residence.

A solitary Indian hut now occupies the site of the ancient city. Each year, however, on Good Friday, a grand procession of the whole neighbouring Indian population is made to it from Tecpan Guatemala.

Near Patzum, as the road leads over high, level table-land, there is a great abrupt *baranca*, or ravine, 3000 feet deep.

Descending from the plain, about 500 mules were passed loaded with wheat for the mills, and merchandise for Guatemala. The sides of the ravines were of an immense height. In one place they rode along a perpendicular wall of lime-stone

rock, smoking with spontaneous combustion. They travelled over a lofty table-land bordering the left of Atitlan; and descended, at first by a steep pitch, and then gently for about three miles along the precipitous border of the lake, leaving on the right the *camino real*, and the village of San Andres, and suddenly reached the brink of the table-land, 2000 feet high. At the foot was a rich plain running down to the water. In the plain, "buried in foliage, with the spire of the church barely visible, stood the town of Panajachel." The magnificent landscape comprehended "all the requisites of the grand and beautiful; gigantic mountains, a valley of poetic softness, lake and volcanoes, and from the height on which they stood, a waterfall marked a silver line down its sides. A party of Indian men and women were moving in single file from the foot of the mountain towards the village, and looked like children. The descent was steep and perpendicular, and, reaching the plain, the view of the mountain walls was sublime."

On reaching Tolola, a number of drunken Indians stood in a line, and took off their old petates (straw hats) with both hands. It was Sunday, and the bells of the church were ringing for vespers, rockets were firing, and a procession headed by fiddlers with their violins, was parading round the plaza the figure of a saint on horseback, dressed like a harlequin. Opposite the cabildo, the alcalde, with a crowd of mestizoes, was fighting cocks.

Tololo stands on the lofty borders of the Lake of Atitlan, and a hundred yards from it the whole water was visible. Mr. Stephens says,

"I tied my horse to the whipping-post, and thanks to Carrera's passport, the alcalde sent off for *sacate*, had a room swept out in the cabildo, and offered to send us supper from his own house. He was about ten days in office, having been appointed since Carrera's last invasion."

Formerly, this place was the residence of the youngest branch of the reigning house of Kachiquel.

At Santa Thomas, a crowd of Indians was gathered in the plaza, well dressed in brown cloth, and with long black hair, without hats. The entire population was Indian. There was not a single white man in the place, nor one who could speak Spanish, except an old mestitzo, who was the secretary of the alcalde. Mr. Stephens' party rode up to the cabildo, and tied the mules before the prison door.

"Groups of villanous faces were fixed in the bars of the windows. We called for the alcalde, presented Carrera's passport, and demanded *sacate*, eggs, and frijoles for ourselves, and a guide to Quiché. While these were got, the alcalde, and as many alguazils as could find a place, seated themselves silently on a bench occupied by us."

Ascending to the plain of Quiché, they came in view of the ancient capital of Utatlan, the royal residence of the native sovereigns of Quiché, and the most sumptuous city discovered by the Spaniards in Central America. Its site was worthy the abode of kings.

"We passed on," says Mr. Stephens, "between two small lakes, rode into the village, passed on, as usual, to the convent, which stood beside the church, and stopped at the foot of a high flight of stone steps. An old Indian on the platform told us to walk

in, and we spurred our mules up the steps, rode through the corridor into a large apartment, and sent the mules down another flight of steps into a yard enclosed by a high stone fence."

This convent was the first erected in the country by the Dominican friars before the death of Alvarado. Its original massive stone walls, corridors, pavements, and paved court, are still in such condition that it may serve what many of the religious edifices were constructed to answer—a monastery or a fortress. Mr. Stephens found its interior desolate, or filled with rubbish; one section was used for keeping fodder, *sacate*, another was for a kind of granary, and in a third, the fowls of the village roosted.

They arrived at Quezaltenango the day before Good Friday; the streets and plaza were crowded with people in their best attire, the Indians wearing large black cloaks, with broad brimmed felt sombreros, and the women a white frock, covering the head except an oblong opening for the face: some wore a sort of turban of red cord plaited with the hair. He met afterwards crowds of Indians staggering drunk after holiday fêtes.

He regretted not being able to explore the neighbouring country, for there was no place he had visited, except ruined cities, so unique and interesting, and which deserved to be so thoroughly explored, as Quezaltenango. A month, at least, might be satisfactorily and profitably employed in examining the many curious objects in the country around. For botanical researches it is the richest district in Central America. But he had no time even for rest.

Travelling northwards until he ascended the summit of the mountain range, he says,

"We were almost on a level with the tops of the volcanoes. As we ascended the temperature grew colder, and we were compelled to put on our ponchas. At half-past two we reached the top of the Sierra Madre, the dividing line of the waters, being twelve miles from Gueguetenango, and in our devious course making the second time that we had crossed the Sierra. The ridge of the mountain was a long level table *about half a mile* wide, with rugged sides rising on the right to a terrific peak. Riding about half an hour on this table, by the side of a stream of clear and cold water, which passes on, carrying its tribute to the Pacific Ocean, we reached a miserable rancho, in front of which the arriero proposed to encamp, as he said it was impossible to reach the next village. At a distance it was a glorious idea that of sleeping on the top of the Sierra Madre, and the scene was wild enough for the most romantic imagination; but not being provided against cold, we would have gladly exchanged it for an Indian village."

On arriving at the Rio Lagertere, the boundary between Guatemala and Mexico, he describes the scene as wild and of surpassing beauty, with its banks "shaded by some of the noblest trees of the tropical forests, water as clear as crystal, and fish a foot long, playing in it as gently as if there were no fish-hooks. No soldiers were visible, all was as desolate as if no human being had ever crossed the boundary before."

On entering Mexico, he observes,

"Since we left Güüsta, we had not seen a human being; the country was still desolate and dreary; there was not a breath of air; hills, mountains, and plains were all barren and stony; but as the sun pressed above its horizon, its beams gladdened this scene of

barrenness. For two hours we ascended a barren stony mountain. Even before this the desolate frontier had seemed almost an impregnable barrier.

"At half-past ten we reached the top of the mountain, and on a line before us saw the church of Zapolouta, the first village in Mexico. Four hours' ride over an arid and sandy plain, brought us to Comitán."

At Comitán, the whole community, not excepting the revenue officers, are engaged directly or otherwise in smuggling, and its effect upon public morals was deplorable. The place itself was, however, so ill supplied, that when he sent for a washerwoman, there was "no soap in the town," and when he wanted the mules shod, "there was only iron enough to shoe one."*

After passing through Ocosingo, the country was found to be as wild as before the Spanish conquest, and without a habitation, until they reached Palenque. "The road was through a forest so overgrown with brush and underwood, as to be impenetrable, and the branches were trimmed barely high enough to admit a man's travelling under them on foot, so that on the backs of our mules we were constantly obliged to bend our bodies, and even to dismount. In some places, for a great distance around, the woods seemed killed by the heat, the foliage withered, the leaves dry and crisp, as if burned by the sun; and a tornado had swept the country."

As they approached near to Palenque, they came into "a region of fine pasture-grounds, and saw herds of cattle. The grass showed the effect of early rains, and the picturesque appearance of the country reminded me of many a scene at home; but there was a tree of singular beauty (the palm) that was a stranger, having a high, naked trunk, and spreading top, with leaves of vivid green, covered with yellow flowers."

He left Palenque for Yucatan. Mr. Stephens and Mr. Catherwood remained for some time at Palenque. His detailed account of those remarkable ruins is exceedingly interesting. In a sketch hereafter of the ruins of Central America, we allude to his description, though briefly. There are two routes, the one by Tobasco, the other by the Laguna de Terminos to Campeachy. Tobasco and Campeachy were at the time both besieged by the *Liberals* or *Revolutionists*.

Leaving the village of Palenque, they "entered immediately upon a beautiful plain, picturesque, ornamented with trees, and extending five or six days' journey to the Gulf of Mexico. The road was very muddy, but open to the sun in the morning, was not so bad as we feared, on the borders of a piece of woodland were singular trees, with a tall trunk, the bark very smooth, and the branches festooned with hanging birds'-nests." They afterwards proceeded by the Usamasinto to the Laguna de Terminos.

* Mr. Stephens says, "We were advised, after we had set out, that it was proper to have our horses shod, but there was no good blacksmith, except at Quezaltenango; and as we were at that place during a fiesta, he would not work. In crossing long ranges of stony mountains, not one of them suffered except Mr. Catherwood's riding mule, and her hoofs were worn down even with the flesh."

CHAPTER VI.

ISTHMUS OF PANAMA AND OF NICARAGUA.

IF there shall ever be an intelligent, wise, just, and permanent government in a country which possesses, with but few real disadvantages, so many of the great resources and powers of production as are composed within the boundary of Central America; then the excavation of a ship canal, and the construction of a railroad across the isthmus, either of Panama or Nicaragua, will be found works of the greatest importance; and, according to all the information which we have been enabled to obtain, very far from being formidable undertakings. At present the moral difficulties, arising from absence of confidence, which experience has destroyed in the government of any Spanish republic, are alone sufficient to deter prudent men from embarking in undertakings which, in the United Kingdom and in the United States, would be accomplished with little comparative hazard.

The whole isthmus of Central America embraces two, first, the Isthmus of Panama, the other the Isthmus of Nicaragua. To which we add the Mexican Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

The Andes of South America, though apparently and long considered as extending into Mexico without any break or pass, actually disappear at the Isthmus of Panama, between the mouth of the Rio Atrato and the bay of St. Miguel, where a plain extends nearly from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This plain, which is about 140 miles long, from east to west, terminates on the shores of the Caribbean Sea, at the western extremity of the Bay of Mandingo, or St. Blas, and near the city of Panama on the Pacific. It is for the most part level, not much elevated above the sea, except in one part, where the summit, which, according to the report of the French engineer, M. Garella, is 177 English feet. It is nearly covered with a forest of magnificent wood, and numerous small rivers flowing through it, fall either into the Bay of Darien, or into that of Panama.

The Chepo River is said to rise near the south-east extremity of the isthmus, under the name of Canada, and flows westward for many miles, and then to the south, and enters the Gulf of Panama, about twenty-five miles east of Panama. It is navigable from the sea to this bend, and a little higher up the small town of Chepo is situated on its banks. Opposite Mandingo Bay, on the Atlantic, the isthmus is a little less than twenty miles across in a direct line. But at the bottom of the Bay of Mandingo, two parallel ridges, which extend south-west and north-east, spread over the isthmus between that bay and Porto de Naos: stretching about seventy miles along the north coast. The summits of this ridge rise to above 1000 feet.

Between the Rio Chagres on the Atlantic, and the Bay of Chorrea on the Pacific, the hills are divided from each other by plains.

Among the rivers which drain the two last-mentioned districts, the Rio Chagres rises east of Port Velo, among the mountains behind the Bay of Mandingo. It flows westward through the centre of the isthmus between the above two parallel ridges. The Pequeni from the south-east is large and broad, and falls into the Chagres. Both streams rush rapidly forward to their junction, several miles below which, at Cruces, it flows at the rate of from about two to three miles and a half an hour; near its embouchure its rate is from one to two miles per hour. After entering the plain, twenty-four miles above the port of Chagres, it receives the Trinidad, which rises near the south coast and the town of Chorrea. The Trinidad is navigated by canoes up to Capua; it has no falls or other obstacles to navigation.

The Rio Caymito enters the Bay of Panama about ten miles west of the town of Chorrea; is very deep towards its mouth, and one branch of it continues navigable to the town of Chorrea; but the tide runs very strong in and out of the river, which is not impeded by a bar at its mouth, and the anchorage is much exposed.

The Gulf or Bay of Panama is about 132 miles broad at its mouth, and extends inwards for about 100 miles. Off the north-eastern shore there rises a number of rocky islands, Islas de la Perlas, among which a quantity of pearls are annually fished. Some rocky islands off its north-western coast form the Port of Panama. In this bay the average rise and fall of the tide two days after full moon is about twenty-one feet; on the opposite side of the isthmus, off Chagres, its rise is only a little more than one foot. The high-water mark in the Atlantic being about thirteen feet lower than on the Pacific coast.

The whole Isthmus of Panama to the boundary of Costa Rica is claimed as within the limits of the government of New Grenada: a government the stability and wisdom of which has not hitherto inspired such confidence in Europe, or in the United States of North America, as would justify an outlay, on the part of capitalists, in order to execute a great public work, which would otherwise be profitable to the undertakers, and of general benefit to the nations of the world.—(See observations hereafter on the constructing of a Canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific.)

The region from Punta Mala, on the western side of the Gulf of Panama, extending north-west between the Atlantic and Pacific for more than 400 miles, appears an uninterrupted chain of rocky mountains ascending into the plateau of Veragua. This plateau is estimated as rising 2000 to 3000 feet above the ocean, with peaks rising to 8000 feet or more. The most elevated peak appears to be the Silla de Veragua, not far from Veragua. These rocky mountains approach near to the shores of the Pacific, a belt of low-lands extends along the Atlantic.

The shores of the lagoon of Chiriqui are low and closely wooded.

Of the Bay of Mandingo, Chiriqui, San Blas, and other places south from the Rio San Juan, to the extremity of the Atlantic shores of the Isthmus of Panama, we owe our most authentic information to Mr. Roberts, who frequently visited those places to trade with the Indians. There is anchorage in Mandingo on the lee side of the numerous keys. "On arriving there," says Mr. Roberts, "the Indians recommended us to proceed to Great Playone River, as the most commodious place for loading the brig, and procuring a cargo with the greatest despatch. They shortly left us, but returned in the evening, accompanied by several canoes and dories,* from the shore, bringing plantains, bananas and cocoa-nuts, cassava, hogs, fowl, and turtle; in exchange for which, we gave them fishhooks, small glass beads, Dutch looking-glasses, salt, and other articles, which, except to them, were of very trifling value. Our crew, in the meantime, put out their fishing-lines, and soon caught plenty of groupers, red and silver snappers, stone bass, and a variety of other fish, so that we had abundance of excellent provisions.

"Having thus apprised the Indians of our arrival on the coast, we next day got under weigh, and ran down the inner passage, between the small keys or islands, and the mainland. This passage is full of coral rocks and reefs, but the water is so clear, that they are easily seen and avoided in the day-time by keeping a man stationed at the mast-head, on the look out, to give warning of the vessel's approach to them. At night, however, this inner passage, the whole distance from Mandingo to Caret, is totally impracticable."

Between these points, are the entrance of numerous rivers, the sources of which are unknown, being situated in the interior, or occupied by tribes who have maintained their independence.

The vessel in which Mr. Roberts traded anchored off the River Daablo; fired a gun as a signal to the Indians, whose chief settlements are situated on the banks of the rivers, a considerable way up from the sea. The report of even a six-pounder on this coast, is heard an immense way up the country; but it is only the acute ear of an Indian, that can distinguish between its reverberations among the mountains, and the more frequent sound of distant thunder. On hearing this signal-gun, canoes are immediately despatched, for the purpose of ascertaining the object of such a visit. Sometimes they arrive the same evening, but at all times not later than next morning.

He proceeded to Needle Key, being the most eligible place for collecting fustic, the most bulky, although the least valuable part of a cargo. He was visited by the chiefs, and by the Sookeah man, priest, or conjuror, of the Great and Little Playone tribes. He hired a few Indians, who very expeditiously erected a temporary house for him on one of the keys, to deposit his goods for sale. The Indians shortly arrived from all parts of the coast, with fustic, in canoes

* A kind of large boat made out of the trunk of a tree.

and dories; some of them brought from 500 cwt., up to three, four, or five tons, but none of them exceeding the latter quantity. In exchange he gave them ravenduck, osnaburg, checks, blue baftas, and other manufactured goods—*mosschettes*, (or G. R. cutlass-blades), and a variety of toys and small articles, adapted to this trade, for which articles in barter, an enormous price was obtained. Hogs, fowls, and an abundant variety of provisions and fruits, were brought from various rivers, and sold to him at a very trifling consideration. The hogs, at this place, were turned loose on the key during the day-time, to seek for food; but at night, either from habit, or an instinctive fear of wild beasts, they invariably kept crowded together in a body, close to the house.

He fitted out two large boats, by the Spaniards called bongos, for an excursion along the coast, putting a few goods on board, and procuring the assistance of an Indian trader, who partially understood the English language, and proceeded to the River Mosquito, where there is a considerable settlement of Indians, who here have long traded with the English from Jamaica, have adopted the British flag, which has been regularly hoisted at the house of the headman every morning. The tortoise-shell collected at this place is of the best quality.

From Banana and the Mosquito River, Mr. Roberts proceeded towards the Gulf of Darien, to the excellent harbour of Sasardee,—an Indian station, where he purchased a considerable quantity of tortoise-shell and cocoa. Turtles were abundant, and the natives raise plantains, maize, bananas, cassava, and other products.

The natives of the Isthmus of Darien are considered to be a distinct people from the Valientes and other tribes of the Rio Beling, Chrico Mola, Chiriqui, and other places to the northward. They are shorter in stature, few of them exceeding five feet two or three inches in height. They have low foreheads and rather flat, full chests, broad shoulders, and are exceedingly active; their eyes are small and dark; their cheek-bones are broad and full; the lips not very thick. They allow the hair on their heads, which is coarse, black, and often worn tied behind the head, or in queue, to grow to its natural length, but they eradicate it from all other parts of the body. Their colour is a dusky yellow. There are some instances of Albinos amongst them. The San Blas Indians are described as an active, hardy race of people, jealous of their independence, which they have hitherto strenuously maintained: they are fond and careful of their women. Some of the latter accompanied their chiefs on board Mr. Roberts's vessel. They were clothed in wrappers of blue baftas, or striped cotton of their own manufacture, reaching from the breast to a little lower than the calf of the leg. They wore a profusion of small glass beads round their ankles, forming a band of from two to three and a half inches deep, and similar bands or bracelets were worked round the wrists. Their ears were pierced, as well as the cartilage of the nose, in which they wore rings of gold or silver; the

ear-rings principally supplied by the Jamaica traders—the nose jewels seem to be of their own manufacture, being a thick ring of gold in the form of an obtuse triangle, about three-quarters of an inch in circumference. On their necks they wore fine seed beads of lively colours, and necklaces of red coral. Some of those worn by the chiefmen's wives would have weighed several pounds. Their hair, which is very long and black, was fastened on the top of the head with a sort of bodkin made of tortoiseshell. Their complexions were much clearer than that of the men. Over the head was thrown a piece of blue bafta or salempore, covering the back, breasts, and one side of the face. The deportment of these women was modest, diffident, and amiable. Their husbands being jealous of strangers, is one reason, according to Mr. Roberts, for refusing to allow Europeans to settle on the mainland. "Their trading intercourse," he says, "is always carried on at one of the numerous keys or islands on the coast, selected at the time for that purpose. Perhaps this custom may, in some measure, be owing to the necessity which they are under of guarding with great vigilance against their neighbours the Spaniards, to whom they bear the most inveterate enmity. No Spanish vessel ever fell into their power, whose crew was permitted to escape, when any of them have the misfortune to suffer shipwreck on this part of the coast—the massacre of the crew is, under every circumstance, the inevitable consequence." During one of his subsequent trading voyages to this quarter, a fine Spanish copper-bottomed schooner, of about 120 tons' burden, laden with wine, rice, maize, sugar, bricks, and jerked beef, ran aground during the night on a reef of rocks, a little to the north-east of the great Playone River. "The crew, knowing the inevitable consequence of being discovered in the morning, took to their boats during the night, and reached Porto Bello. The vessel being strong and substantially built, beat fairly over the reef, without suffering much damage. The Indians, immediately on discovering the accident, boarded and plundered her, cutting away the masts, bowsprit, &c., for the mere purpose of securing the iron works, by rendering her useless. They regretted that the crew had made their escape. The hull of the vessel was afterwards removed to Needle Key, and I used it as a hulk, by which to heave down a vessel under my command."

The forests of San Blas produce some very valuable woods, amongst which may be enumerated fustic, cedar, ironwood, ebony, brazilletto, lancewood, spars, and a variety of hard woods, well adapted for the use of cabinet-makers. The interior abounds in game of various descriptions, amongst which are the tapir, or mountain cow, the waree, peccary, gibeonite, Indian coney, antelope, armadillo, and others; also currassow, guam, coquericot, partridge, and a great variety of other birds. No rivers or coast in the world can produce a greater variety of excellent fish, or finer turtle; and the quantity seems inexhaustible. Cocoa-nut trees are never cut down or destroyed by the Indians of San Blas, and are so abundant on

all the keys, that the fruit is esteemed of little value, except on account of the oil, which the natives extract and use for dressing their hair, burning in lamps, and other purposes.

The inhabitants of this part of the coast are careful to preserve the hawksbill turtle as much as they can. They never destroy its eggs, and have a cruel method of taking the shell from its back, without killing the animal, as is done by the other tribes. They collect a quantity of dry grass, or leaves, with which they cover the turtle's back, and then setting the stuff on fire, the heat causes the shell on the back to separate at the joints. A knife is then insinuated horizontally, and the pieces are peeled from the back, care being taken not to injure the shell by too much heat, nor to force it off till the heat has prepared it for separation.

The turtle is held down by an Indian during this operation, and afterwards let loose. Great numbers of them, reduced to this helpless state, fall a prey to the numerous sharks on the coast. There have been many instances of turtle being afterwards caught which had undergone the process, and the shell subsequently formed has, instead of thirteen pieces, the usual number, been in one piece only.

Traders, who are not judges of fustic, may be cheated, by having a spurious, or bastard wood without dye, imposed upon them. Traders are also accused of deteriorating the quality of the wood, by immersing it, during their stay, in salt water, to increase its weight. These practices, together with the circumstance that a great quantity of inferior wood is cut in low, swampy places, has depreciated the character of that which is collected here.

The natives are excellent hunters and fishers. One of their modes of fishing is singular. The water on their coasts being very clear, they can easily see the fish basking, or swimming near the surface, or in the shallow places; and they kill considerable numbers, by following them in canoes, and shooting them with arrows. The women and children plant and cultivate Indian corn, cassava, plantain, and other provisions, the men cut down the wood, prepare it for sale or other purposes, and clear the ground for plantations. They are not so much addicted to spirituous liquors as some of the other Indians of the coast; and they drink chicka, which they make from Indian corn, cassava, and plantains, in preference to rum. They in general have one wife; some, who can maintain them, have four or five. Their houses are constructed at a short distance from each other. Each wife has a separate house or hut. The husband usually takes up his residence with the eldest, who considers it her duty to set the others a good example, and maintain a friendly understanding, by directing their attention to the comfort and convenience of the husband. Sometimes, but not often, they all live in one house, except during an advanced state of preg-

nancy, confinement, or suckling their children, at which season they invariably live separately.

The men of greatest consequence, next to the principal chiefs, are the Sookeah-men, who are both doctors and priests. They are supposed, by the more ignorant natives, to hold communication with an invisible spirit, and to be empowered, through his means, to foretel events. They have acquired a knowledge of the medicinal virtues of some plants, and are thereby enabled to cure wounds, and also some of the local diseases. They are deep, shrewd, and comparatively intelligent men, and, having once acquired an ascendancy among their own tribe, their fame soon extends to others.

It is asserted that they have been known to dance, in a state of nudity, in the middle of a large fire, the flames having little or no effect on their body. The effects of the fire is supposed to be resisted by some antidote, extracted from vegetable substances, the preparation of which is only known to the superior sookeahs.

Their knowledge has not extended to diseases introduced by Europeans, many of the natives having been carried off by the small-pox, measles, and other complaints for which they know no cure, and by which their numbers have been greatly diminished. On the first appearance of the measles or small-pox, which have proved as destructive to these Indians as the plague has been to the inhabitants of other quarters of the globe, they abandon their settlements, and fly to some of the numerous keys on the coast for the benefit of the air; on one of these the infected are carefully secluded until they are free from disease;—death generally puts an end to their sufferings.

The Mosquito Shore men have repeatedly attempted to acquire authority over the San Blas Indians, and much blood, in consequence, was formerly shed. The last expedition against the latter took place about forty-five years ago. The Mosquito-men, about 300 in number, were nearly all cut off in the different engagements that took place.

The country of the San Blas Indians is naturally so strong, and the lagoons and harbours so very intricate, that contrabandists, privateers, or pirates, if on friendly terms with the Indians, can always find shelter; and in consequence of the impolitic duties and prohibitions of the New Granadian government, the trade to Carthagena, Porto Bello, &c., may be superseded by the contrabandists.

CHIRICO MOLA.—On Mr. Roberts arriving at Chiriqui Lagoon, he ascended the River Chirico Mola, about twenty-five miles, to the principal settlement of the Valiente Indians; a station said to be exceedingly healthy, for the recovery of his health.

He found that the river has two mouths, formed by a small island at its entrance; the one to the westward is broadest, having only about two feet water

on the bar; the other three feet. After passing these entrances, it is of considerable depth up to the first rapid, a distance of about twelve miles.

At this rapid the land rises high on each side, and, up to the settlement, the river is so full of falls, rocks, and rapids, that it would be totally impossible for persons unaccustomed to such places to ascend even in the lightest canoes. The Indians are obliged in the ascent, frequently to lay aside their paddles and use poles—and at some places even to haul their canoes over the rapids, which the force of the current renders no easy task—the smooth rocks and rounded stones making it difficult to find a secure footing. Between these rapids, however, there are many smooth and deep parts of the river, some of them about a mile in length, and the banks are covered by a variety of majestic trees and shrubs of the most lively colours. Above is the first Valiente Settlement. The houses are situated at a small distance from the river.

He soon received visits from several families, sometimes from ten to twenty in a group, each person bringing from fifty to eighty pounds of sarsaparilla, in large bags made of silk grass, having a large band of the same material fastened across its mouth.—These bags, when filled, appeared like baskets, of which the band formed the handle; and they were suspended on the back of the Indian by this band across the forehead: women and children were laden in a similar way.

They also brought him abundance of fowls, some fine hogs, and a great many extremely neat bags, or purses, of various sizes, made of silk grass, and dyed of various bright colours, some of the threads nearly as fine as lace.

Scarlet, blue, yellow, and purple, were the most predominant colours; and, when newly dyed, they appeared very bright, but did not stand the rain or weather; these Indians possess some very valuable dyes, but do not know how to fix the colours. They also brought him some small lines from twenty to thirty fathoms in length, made of the interwoven fibres of cotton and silk grass. These they are in the habit of bartering with the fishing Indians of the coast, who use them as lines for catching turtle, &c. He gave in barter for these articles fish-hooks, glass-beads, small Dutch looking-glasses, seamen's knives, and other articles of little value.

The Indians inhabiting the coast assume a superiority over these "Montanios" or Hill people. He found the natives of the interior, harmless, inoffensive, honest in their dealings, and satisfied with whatever was given them in exchange for the commodities they brought.

Many of the people, who then and subsequently visited him, came, as he was told, from the low country, bordering on the Pacific Ocean; having crossed the mountains about thirty miles above this village. These mountains are of considerable elevation, covered with wood to the summits, and form the natural

boundary between the Valientes, and those Indians who occasionally trade with the Spaniards.

Sarsaparilla was one of the principal articles of trade with these people; the kind which is collected in the savannahs is more esteemed than that which is brought from the mountains.

After he had resided some time at Chrico Mola, the Indians from the south side of the mountains frequently brought him Spanish money and pieces of silver, for the purchase of iron pots, cutlass blades, earthenware, and dry goods. Many of these Indians had incurred the jealousy of the Valientes, who dislike any intercourse with the Spaniards. Their quarrels on this subject have often ended in bloodshed, and the Valientes seldom approach, or trust themselves within reach of the Spanish territory.

From his first arrival at Chrico Mola, he gradually acquired bodily strength,—and he followed the example of the inhabitants, old and young, by daily bathing in the river, which is here as clear as crystal, and pleasantly cool. Alligators do not ascend higher than the first fall, so that there is no danger from them.

In less than six weeks he had purchased upwards of 5000 lbs. weight of sarsaparilla.

Having heard that the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans could be seen at the same time from the summit of a mountain about thirty miles from Chrico Mola, he proceeded to it, accompanied by an Indian. The way was nearly free from underwood, or any difficult impediment, except ravines, which are, in some places, wide, and the bottoms and sides partly composed of large masses of rock.

On gaining the summit of the mountain, which did not terminate in any peak or cone, but was rather the continuation of a chain, or ridge of mountains, which rose higher than any of those in the immediate neighbourhood.

About 500 yards across this summit, the descent, towards the Pacific was rather abrupt; and more precipitous than on the Atlantic side. Mountains still higher appeared to the eastward in the direction of Panama and Chagres. To the north-west, an immense and continued unbroken chain of mountains presented themselves as far as the eye could reach; and, here and there, various high isolated peaks, having the appearance of volcanoes, sprung up from the chain. *He had a clear and distinct view of both seas*; many of the islands in the Bocco del Toro and Chiriqui Lagoons on the Atlantic side, were distinctly seen, but he could not perceive Quibo, nor any of the islands on the Pacific, which he thought would, if correctly laid down in the charts, have been visible. The immense forests of stately trees which vegetate on the sides of all rivers in this country, and clothe most of the mountains to their very summits, effectually prevented his tracing the course of these rivers. The country, from the spot on which he

obtained this magnificent view, presented, as it were, a map of an immense mountain forest.

When one of the Valientes Indians dies, the body is buried under the floor of the house occupied by the family; the only exceptions to this rule are, when an Indian has been poisoned by a serpent, or slain in a quarrel with one of his own tribe: in either case they are interred under a house in their provision-ground, and their implements of war, and other moveables, are buried with them; their canoe also is generally split in two, and laid over the grave. Even the plantain-walks and provisions on the grounds, immediately belonging to persons so killed are destroyed. On the death of a relation, they manifest extraordinary grief; the women beat their bosoms, tear their hair, cut their flesh, and exhibit the most extravagant sorrow. The son, if there be one, succeeds to his father's house and women. The moveables, such as canoes, hunting and fishing-implements, arms, trinkets, &c., are divided amongst all the children. If there be no children, the eldest brother succeeds to every thing. The women have little choice in marriage: that affair being always decided by their father, or nearest male relations.

Children, of both sexes, are early taught to swim; one of their chief pastimes is in the water, to which they resort as soon as they can walk. As they grow older they are instructed to use the bow and arrow and spear; and they acquire dexterity by practising with blunt instruments upon the fowls, dogs, or other domestic animals or birds. As they acquire strength, the boys are taken to fish or spear turtle: on these expeditions they are sometimes absent, with the men, three weeks or a month; and, on returning, always divide part of the produce among their neighbours. The girls accompany their mothers to the provision-grounds; carry light burdens of wood, plantains, cassava, and other articles; grind corn, wash and prepare cotton and silk grass, and attend to other domestic duties. They, as well as the boys, bathe frequently during the day; but, from the age of six years, at which time they are generally betrothed, these ablutions are made separately, and with their mothers, who after that period seldom allow their daughters to be out of their sight until marriage, which generally takes place at the age of ten or twelve years.

When a Valiente Indian considers himself affronted or injured by one of his own tribe, he deliberately sharpens his moscheat, or cutlass; and, taking a friend with him, goes to the house of his adversary, whom he challenges to fair combat. The challenge is frequently accepted on the spot, and the duel never ends until one, or sometimes both, are killed or maimed.

They are dexterous in the use of the cutlass, both in attack and defence; it is rare to find a Valiente without deep scars on his body, particularly about the head. If the challenged party puts off the quarrel it is generally made up by

the intervention of friends. Few of them can use fire-arms with effect, but they are expert with the bow and arrow, and are good and dexterous spearmen.

They are in general courageous, possess a keen sense of honour, and continue to merit the appellation given to them by their first discoverers, of "Indios Bravos" or "Valientes." They are a taller race than those of San Blas, and may, from their intercourse with Europeans and other traders, be considered more civilised than most of the other tribes inhabiting this part of *Terra Firma*. Their hatred to the Spaniards, and partiality to the English, are remarkable; and, in point of honesty, they are far superior to the Mosquito-men, to whose king they, however, have paid a sort of tribute, or acknowledgment, annually, which they consider in the light of a gratuity, according to ancient custom, rather than an acknowledgment as subjects. On more than one occasion they have refused to pay this tribute, and about fifty years ago, a dispute took place on the subject, and the Mosquito king's uncle, with the whole of the chiefs and people who then accompanied him, to the number of about fifty men, were sacrificed.

No Sookeah-man, or priest of any kind, lived amongst them during the years that Mr. Roberts visited or resided in their country. Marriage, baptism, and other ceremonies, commonly considered religious, were performed by the elders of the settlement. They are not, however, without ideas of a future state, and an overruling Providence; and to any wonderful or providential escape from danger, or unaccountable preservation, they sometimes give the name of "God business."

They have also some faint idea of spirits, and of another world, where they expect to find good hunting-ground, with game and provisions.

Their houses are built generally near the banks of a river. In constructing them three or sometimes four hardwood posts are driven into the ground, at equal distances, the intended length of the house, to these is secured the roof-tree. Small posts are driven, into the earth along each side, ten or twelve feet apart; long poles or rafters are then laid upon these from the roof-tree and along the sides; the roof is covered with a species of durable palm, and the sides are covered in the same way. Sometimes the roof descends to within five feet of the ground, and the sides behind left open, without any wall. In this case they sleep on a kind of elevated platform, constructed by four posts being driven into the ground at equal distances, so as to form a square frame; a broad plank of cedar-wood forms the bottom. This bed is generally large enough for the husband and two or three wives. When the family is numerous, several of these bed-places are erected round the inside of the house, on a level with the eaves' lower side of the roof. A log of wood, notched, serves for steps to this sleeping berth.

The plantain walks of the Valientes are extensive; and, at Chrico Mola, extended several miles along the banks of the river. These walks are never ex-

hausted, as on some parts of the Mosquito Shore; a continual succession of suckers, or young plants, are always found springing round the foot of the original plant; and such is the luxuriance of their growth, that they are frequently thinned or transplanted. Cassava and Indian corn are cultivated further in the interior; for subsistence, they principally depend upon the plantain, banana, and cassava. Their method of preparing ground for a maize crop, is simple. The man who wishes the work done invites his neighbours to a chichee drink. It is then agreed by the guest to clear a piece of land. On the day appointed every man comes with his axe or moscheat, the trees and bushes are soon levelled, and the grain is loosely scattered on the ground amongst the fallen trees. This is generally done a few days before the commencement of the rainy season. The fallen branches screen the shoots from the sun, and in about five months the ears, having overtopped this covering, is ready for gathering.

After the grain has been collected, the wood is set on fire; and, with the dry stalks of the maize, burns so thoroughly as to leave merely ashes, and the stumps of the trees. The ground is then considered sufficiently cleared for agricultural purpose. The cocoa-tree grows amid every banana or plantain walk. The soil on the borders of the Chrico Mola, and other rivers emptying themselves into Chiriqui Lagoon, is well adapted to its growth; and it arrives at perfection in four or five years, with little trouble to the cultivators.

The soil about Chrico Mola is remarkably fertile; and yields in great perfection almost all the fruits common in South America, among which the mammee, sapodilla, cocoa-nut, orange grape-tree, locust, soupa (which in season is preferred to the plantain, banana, and cassava); and a variety of other delicious fruits.

The soupa, a species of palm with the trunk armed with prickles or thorns, is from fifty to sixty feet high: on the top, the leaves branch out like those of the cocoa-tree—they are pinnated—thin—undulated and frizzled toward the points. It bears several clusters of fruit, each cluster consisting of from eighty to a hundred fruit. The fruit is first green, then yellow like an apple, and grow red as they ripen. They are the size of a hen's egg, and sometimes without any kernel; the fruit is farinaceous, and an excellent substitute for bread or vegetables. The wood of the tree is extremely hard, heavy, and close-grained; it is used for bows, staves for striking turtle, and for spear shafts. The stem is so prickly that the fruit is gathered by means of long bamboos.

Nature has supplied the Valientes abundantly with the mere necessities of life; their plantations are managed with very little labour, and their woods contain abundance of game: their rivers abound in the finest fish, and their lagoons frequented by the best turtle, and fish and fowl. Formerly the clothing of these Indians was made of a sort of bark, prepared by being soaked in running water,

and afterwards beaten with a smooth heavy club into a cloth resembling chamois leather. This was formed into a square piece, six or seven feet long, and about five feet wide, with a hole cut in the centre to admit the head. Now they are often dressed in a complete European suit; or, in their own words, "true English gentleman fashion."

The wet season is not, with them, considered an unhealthy period. It is one of rest and enjoyment, during which they form parties for drinking weak preparations of cocoa, of which they take immense quantities. Their method of preparing it is simple: it is bruised, or crushed, between two stones to a consistence of paste, then diluted with warm water; and, in this state served in calabashes, containing each about a quart; some Indians drink eight or ten quarts at a sitting, which brings on a state of sleepy insensibility. At these convivialities they tell long stories, or make harangues, in a singing monotonous tone of voice, to which all listen without interrupting the speaker, however improbable the tale may be.

They sometimes from drinking chichee, a sort of wine, made from the fruit of a species of palm-tree, become madly intoxicated. This is rare amongst the Valientes and San Blas men. These drinking orgies are only indulged in on some particular occasions, such as previous to setting off for the turtle-fishing, gathering a maize harvest, a wedding, or the birth of a child.

Mr. Roberts says,—

"There may be many places on the coast better situated for trade; but, for a healthy residence, or permanent settlement of Europeans, I would prefer Chirico Mola River to any other I have seen. Domestic animals increase very fast when the least care is taken of them; a few hogs, which I procured for breeding, as also a quantity of tame fowls, increased so rapidly, that in the end I was at a loss what to do with them until the month of May, when the traders should arrive to take them, and some cows and calves off my hands.

"Mosquitoes, sand-flies, and other insects, which on the coast are so very troublesome and tormenting, are here scarcely known; and, during the whole time of my residence, I slept without being under the necessity of using mosquito curtains. Serpents, or other poisonous reptiles are equally rare, and it is still rarer that any injury is sustained from them."

CHIRIQUI LAGOON has three entrances, one from the eastward round Valiente or Valencia Point; the other from the north-west, by the Sapadilla keys; and a third by the Bocca del Toro Lagoon. The first and second entrances command a sufficient draught of water for ships of the largest class; and the lagoon is capable of containing the whole British Navy secure from all winds. There are several shoals of soft white coral in the lagoon, but all distinctly visible when the sun shines; and the water being, in general, smooth, a vigilant look out is all the pilotage requisite. At the eastern entrance is Paterson's Key, opposite to which, at the northern end of a sandy beach, and not far from the entrance of the harbour, is a cascade, falling from a rock of the height of about five feet

from the ground, forming a most convenient watering-place, as a seventy-four gun ship may lay close to it. It is superior to Water Key, which, together with Tigers' Island, Provision Island, and many other places on this coast, received its name from the old Buccaneers. The entrance to Bocca del Toro Lagoon, or Bahia del Amirante from the north-west, is narrow, yet sufficient for a vessel to work in or out; and, it has about three fathoms water in the channel; the other entrance, from Provision Island, is also a good channel, of considerable depth: the best entrances into Chiriqui Lagoon are those from the eastward.

PROVISION ISLAND has for many years been occupied by fishermen, from San Andres, and the Corn Islands, who resorted to it to barter tortoise-shell and other produce with the traders.

Mr. Roberts made many excursions to the various islands and keys in these lagoons, and found plenty of quams, curassowos, pigeons, monkeys, deer, and a variety of other game on all of them. They also produce vanilla. On some of these islands he found a small species of tiger, but not at all dangerous; the climate is considered healthy, the lagoons, notwithstanding the very heavy rains during the season, being at all times open to the sea breeze. Between Provision Island and a small island opposite to it, there is a deep Bight, called Nancy's Cove, completely sheltered from all winds, and in which the water is smooth. From this place to the north-west entrance of the port of Bocca del Toro, is about six miles; and the whole length of both lagoons cannot be less than ninety to a hundred miles.

The buccaneers and free-traders used occasionally to conceal their vessels in these lagoons, by hauling them into creeks or intricate passages, under the overhanging branches of the trees, and then by lowering the topmasts, and fixing green boughs to the yards and masts, so disguised their appearance, that it was almost impossible to discover the vessel.

Even when a discovery was made, no moderate force dared venture to attack an enemy, who, under cover of the bushes, and assisted by their Indian allies, could beat off their assailants without exposing themselves to a single shot.

The banks of many of the rivers falling into these lagoons, are now totally destitute of inhabitants; although, at one period, the country contained a numerous population of various tribes: some of them, from the apparent remains of their ancient settlements, of considerably antiquity. The Chilibeas, the Tiribeas, and Blancos were once numerous, but in consequence of their wars, and the introduction of European diseases, they are now almost extinct.

During one of the turtle-fishing seasons, Mr. Roberts fitted out a large canoe, loaded her with goods to the value of about 300*l.*, and taking two stout lads to assist him, he visited several places on the coast of the Province of Veragua, calling at Cocoa Plum Point, and the small island Escuda Veragua, off the river

of that name—both places much frequented for turtle. From thence he went over to the entrance of the Rio del Oro, the last Spanish settlement on the coast in the above-named province, where he found a party of four people stationed for the purpose of apprising the Spanish merchants at La Concepcion, a town in the interior, of the arrival of any trading vessel on the coast. Here, from two Spanish creoles, he procured, in payment of goods, several ounces of gold dust.

At the river Belen, or Belem, in the year 1502, Columbus was prevented, by the bravery of the natives, and turbulent disposition of his followers, from establishing a colony.

This river is large, and wide at its entrance; but being open to the north-west, it has a bar with no more than four feet water over it at its mouth. The country on each side of the river appeared to be very fertile, and abounding in provisions and natural products of the soil. Coclee River is of a similar character.

The whole of the coast, from Chiriqui to Chagres, is destitute of harbours for large vessels: the mouths of the rivers being completely exposed to the heavy seas which roll in from the north, north-west, and north-east, are completely barred up, and have only a very few feet water over their entrances.

From the Tiribee River to Monkey Point (Punta Chica) the last headland in the province of Veragua, the distance is not more than eight or ten miles; it is easily known by a remarkably bluff rocky islet, distant only a few yards from the mainland. The islet itself is perforated in a remarkable manner through the middle in the shape of a high imperfect arch, under which there is room for a large boat to pass.

The Rio Culebras, or Snake River, is considered the boundary between the province of Veragua and Costa Rica;—and, to the northward of this river, the Blancas, who are believed to be the fairest Indians in South America, sometimes repair, in large parties, for the purposes of hunting and fishing. They are a mild race, extremely shy, and obliged to be constantly on their guard against their enemies, the Tiribeas and others.

Between Matina and Monkey Point, the country, which is thinly inhabited, presents a beautiful appearance of hill and vale, well watered, but destitute of good harbours and headlands. The following are the names of rivers and places in this tract, viz., Rio Quemado, Point Caneta, De las Doraces, De Dios, Banana, Blanco Point, San Antonio, Lime Bight, Grape Key, Salt Creek, and the small open roadstead of El Portete.

Salt Creek is about twelve miles from Matina, which, with the small harbour of El Portete, may be called the sea-port of Cartago; the bay opposite to Matina River being nothing more than a wild open roadstead, where it is almost im-

possible to land in an European boat: Salt Creek may be distinguished by several small islands lying off the point of land at the south end of the bay, from which it is not more than five or six miles distant. This is the principal resort of the contraband traders, when their cargoes cannot be landed at Matina River. That river has its source more than eighty miles in the interior; and it is joined, at about thirty miles from its mouth, by a tributary river, where there was a fort, named Castillo de Austria; from whence, for about eight leagues, there was a road to an Embarcadero, or carrying-place, about twelve miles from Salt Creek. During the last ten years of Spanish rule, the citizens of the United States regularly, but clandestinely, visited this port every season;—one house in New York sent annually three or four fast sailing schooners to an agent at Salt Creek, who disposed of the cargo, and collected the proceeds, during the time schooners were running down the coast, trading with the Indians for tortoise-shell, copal, and other gums, sarsaparilla, tassao, &c. This may still be considered very much the character of the trade carried on.

The city of CARTAGO, the capital of the province of Costa Rica; had an estimated population, in 1823, of 37,716 souls; but, about two years after that period, it was nearly destroyed by a tremendous earthquake, which shook the whole Isthmus of Darien.

The mountain of Cartago is an active volcano, situated far back in the interior; it frequently emits fire and smoke, and is an excellent landmark to navigators—being seen, in sailing along the coast, at an immense distance.

From Matina, in proceeding north along the shore, are the rivers Vasquez and Azuelos; and to the northward of these, the Bocca de la Portuga, or Turtle Bight—at this place the finest turtle are killed annually, merely for the sake of their manteca or fat, which is melted into oil, and used by the Indians and others as a substitute for butter. Most of the fishermen, on their return from the southwards towards home, stop at this place for the purpose of procuring this oil and turtles' eggs, which latter are dried in the sun to preserve them; and in this way many thousands of turtles have been annually destroyed or prevented from coming to maturity.

During the months of April, May, June, and July, the green turtle comes in from various keys, and places a great many leagues distant, to several parts of the Mosquito Shore, especially to the sandy beaches in the vicinity of Turtle Bogue, to deposit their eggs. At this season the sea is covered with what the fishermen call thimbles—a small blubber fish, in shape not unlike a tailor's thimble; these, and a sort of grass growing at the bottom of the sea, is their principal food. The turtle has large lungs, and cannot sink deeper in the water than five or six fathoms, being obliged to come frequently to the surface for air. The male and female remain together about nine days, during which time the female feeds and keeps in good condition; but when they separate the

male is totally exhausted, and unfit for use as food. Some time after, the female crawls up the sandy beaches, and prepares to lay her eggs; she makes a circle in the sand, then digs a hole, about two feet deep, in which she deposits from sixty to eighty, covers them up, and goes off, generally before daybreak. About the fifteenth night afterwards she returns, and deposits the same number near the same spot. The young turtle are hatched in about thirty-two days, and immediately find their way into the sea. Both the hawksbill and loggerhead turtle keep the same season; but, if a trunk turtle, which is of immense size, and remarkably fat, is found dead on the beach, neither kind will lay their eggs within a mile of the place, for which reason trunk turtle is never killed.

The handle of the spear with which the Indians *strike* turtle is made of very hard wood; the head is a triangular-shaped piece of notched iron, with a sharp point; a piece of iron is joined to this, which slips into a groove at the top of the spear handle, and has a line attached to it which passes through eyes fastened in the shaft of the spear, to which a float is fastened. The Indian, when near enough, raises the spear over his shoulder, and throws with such skill, that it takes a circular direction in the air, and lights, with its point downwards, on the back of the turtle, penetrating through the shell, and the point becoming detached from the handle, remains fastened in the animal's body; the float shows on the surface of the water which way the turtle moves; it is then soon brought up, and secured by means of the line attached to the spear-head.

The turtle has many enemies which destroy both itself and its eggs;—such as the racoon, squash, fox, &c. The congar, or American lion, and a species of black tiger, will also watch the turtle when coming to lay its eggs, seize and haul it into the woods, and there devour it.

Pursuing the voyage from Turtle Bogue, we come to the Rio Colorado. Its entrance is wide, but there is too little water on the bar to admit ships of any size, though sufficiently deep inside. It takes its name from the muddiness of its waters, which discolour the sea to a considerable distance; and, in the rainy season, its entrance may be easily found on the coast, by this discoloration, and by the extensive green downs to the south.

A communication between it and the great River de San Juan (running out of the Lake of Nicaragua), takes place at a distance of about thirty miles from its mouth, by the branch Serapini. Its course in the interior is nearly parallel to the River San Juan, and is said to be joined by many streams having their sources in the mountains to the southward of the Lake of Nicaragua. It enters the ocean about ten miles from the harbour of San Juan; but, in most charts, it is erroneously laid down at a much greater distance to the southward.

The harbour of SAN JUAN DE NICARAGUA is the best for large vessels, on the whole range of coast between the Bocca del Toro, and Cape Gracios à Dios—to which latter it is also superior in not being exposed to southerly winds.

There is a sufficient depth of water, and room, at the upper part, for fifteen or twenty ships of the largest class, besides smaller vessels; which, when there, would be completely land-locked.

Many of the fishermen and Indians, on their return from the southern fishing grounds, call in this neighbourhood, for the purpose of taking *manatees* in the river, and in a creek at the upper end of the harbour. Many of these fishermen remain to cure the meat, on the sandy point at the entrance of the harbour, without being molested by the Spaniards. This animal may be considered the connecting link between quadrupeds and fishes; it has the forefeet, of the former, with the tail of the latter—spreading out in a horizontal direction like a large fan. Beneath the skin, which is hard and thick, there is a deep layer of sweet fat. The meat in its thickest parts is streaked in alternate layers of fat and lean, and is excellent food. Persons afflicted with scorbutic, or scrofulous complaints, are soon cured by using it freely; the blood is said to become purified, and the virulence of the complaint, thrown to the surface of the body, quickly disappears. The manatee is extremely acute in its sense of hearing, and immerses in the water on the slightest noise; it feeds on shoots of grass growing on the banks of the rivers, and will rise nearly two-thirds of its length out of the water to reach food. It is found only in the solitary, and least frequented creeks and rivers; the male and female are generally together; their usual length is from eight to twelve feet, and it weighs from 500 to 800 lbs.: some of them are, however, much larger, weighing from 1200 even to 1500 lbs. The Indians generally creep up to them early in the morning, when they are feeding, and kill them with a harpoon; but if the least noise is made, they immediately sink and escape.

Between the Rio de San Juan and Point de Gorda, a distance of between thirty and forty miles, the coast forms a large bay, into which flows the Rio Trigo (Corn River), Indian River, and several smaller streams, some of which, in most of the charts, are erroneously laid down as having communication, in the interior, with the River San Juan by Indian River.

Mr. Roberts says,—

“I never could trace the report to any authentic source; neither in the passage up and down the Rio San Juan, could I discover such a communication. Between Corn River and Point de Gorda, is Grindstone Bay, with anchorage in from four to five fathoms water. At a short distance from the coast, the country here rises considerably; and from the neighbourhood of San Juan to Bluefields, it is occupied by the Rama Indians, whose principal settlement is at Rama River, or Rio de Punta Gorda, a noble stream, which is said to have a course of about eighty miles, or upwards, from the interior, through a fertile country, and passing between two mountainous ridges at a short distance from the sea-shore.”

The plateau of Costa Rica extends between 9 deg. 20 min. and 10 deg. 20 min. north latitude. The elevation of the plateau is estimated at more than 2000 feet above the sea. In winter the mercury in Fahrenheit sinks to the freezing point. High peaks rise in the plateau to more than 10,000 feet above the sea. Most of them are or have been volcanoes.

Towards the Pacific and the Gulf of Nicoya the descent is gradual from the table lands. The descent towards the east coast is abrupt, and terminates about twenty miles from the sea: the intermediate district being occupied by a low and level country, covered with forests, and subject to inundations. The numerous rivers which descend from the eastern side of the table-land of Costa Rica and Veragua bring down during the rains more water than can be carried off by the rivers. The whole plain, with the exception of a few spots, is consequently laid under water, to a depth varying from five to thirty feet. Through this plain, and parallel to the coast, the Canal de la Baya is said to be navigable to a great extent, the places where it is interrupted by shallows not being numerous. The greatest part of the eastern plain of Costa Rica is occupied by native tribes.

On the Pacific the Gulf of Nicoya has a broad open entrance, growing narrower further inland. It is about seventy miles long, contains good harbours, and several islands, near which pearls are fished, and a shell-fish found which yields a bright red dye.

The PLAIN OF NICARAGUA extends north of the table-land of Costa Rica: towards the Mosquito coast, and is nearly a flat; to the west it is more undulated. A continuous range of hills, connected with the north-western part of the table-land of Costa Rica, traverses the plain in a north-west and south-east direction towards the Pacific. Where these hills approach the Lake of Nicaragua there are several volcanoes. Farther to the north-west between the lakes of Nicaragua and Managua and the Pacific, the hills are low, and disappear opposite the north-western extremity of the Lake of Managua: they are succeeded by a low and level plain, about ten or twelve miles wide. On the north volcanoes rise behind the Bay of Conchagua. The northern part of the Plain of Nicaragua is little known.

North-west from Nicaragua is the Lake Managua. In the middle of this lake stands the conical-formed island of Monotombito. On the north-western shores of Managua rises the volcano of Monotombo, which usually sends forth smoke.

The Plain of Nicaragua is hot throughout the year. It is covered with large forests of remarkable luxuriance. Scarcely a day passes without rain, especially near the shores of the Atlantic, where the rain often descends in torrents. In the volcanic country, the climate is less wet and more healthy.

Cacao, indigo, rice, Indian corn, bananas, and cotton, are cultivated in this plain. Mahogany, cedar, and pine abound in the forests. East from Lake Nicaragua are extensive pastures, on which multitudes of cattle, horses, and mules are reared, a considerable number of which are sent to the northern countries, as well as hide, and cheese of an indifferent kind. On the western coast, pearls and mother-of-pearl shells are taken.

CHAPTER VII.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF A CANAL BETWEEN THE ATLANTIC AND PACIFIC OCEANS.

As far back as the final conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards, the uniting of the waters of the Atlantic with those of the Pacific, was projected. Cortez first suggested the bold plan, which political and moral difficulties, more than physical obstacles, have, hitherto, prevented even the attempt at execution.

Three parts of the great Isthmus have each of them had their advocates as superior to the other two. The Isthmus of Tehuantepec, or the narrowest part of Mexico,—that of Panama,—and that of Nicaragua.

A survey of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec was executed in the years 1842 and 1843, under the direction of the engineer, Signor Gaetano Moro. A long report was drawn up by him in which he states that,

“On accepting the direction of the scientific commission with which I have had the honour to be intrusted, one of the first points to which I directed my attention was the investigation of all the former data upon the subject.

“With the celebrated Hernando Cortes originated the idea of a communication by this isthmus between the two oceans. Nevertheless I am not of opinion that Cortes contemplated the opening of a canal, for although it is observed in the work of Lorenzana, that ‘Cortes had studied mathematics,’ and that for more than a century the construction of locks had been practised in Italy, still their use was but of limited application, and on so small a scale that it is not probable they had much engaged the attention of Cortes.”

With respect to the Tehuantepec scheme, much stress is laid on the navigation of its chief river :

“Towards the end of the seventeenth century, Dampier, speaking of the Coatzacoalcos, said—‘This is one of the principal rivers of this coast ; it is not half the breadth of the Tabasco river, but deeper. Its bar is less dangerous than any on this coast, there being fourteen feet of water, and but little sea : within the bar there is much greater depth, and a bed of soft oasie ground.’ * * * * ‘This river hath its rise near the South Sea, and is navigable a great way into land, especially with boats or small craft.’

“The oldest amongst the documents of most importance is the narrative of a voyage of discovery which the engineer, Don Augustin Cramer, governor of the castle of San Juan de Ulua, performed in 1774, by order of the viceroy, Don Antonio Maria Bucareli.

“After his arrival at the isthmus, by the Gulf of Mexico, he observes:—‘The bar of the river Coatzacoalcos has on it, at half-tide, twenty-four palms of water, excepting a very small portion of its length, on which there are only eighteen palms.’”

Signor Moro proceeds and says—

“These soundings correspond with those taken on the first survey, and afterwards by me ; for which reason, and as frequent soundings taken by the present pilots during the last thirteen years agree with them, it may be inferred, that the said bar is permanently in the same state, or that if any variation occurs it is so inconsiderable that it has escaped notice.

“After passing the bar the river is six to eight fathoms deep.”

Cramer continues his narrative, briefly describing, but with admirable exactness, the course of the river up to Mal Paso, and demonstrates the facilities which the country presents for making a good road from this point to Tehuantepec, concluding with the following observations:

"The river courses, with the mountain chain interrupted between Santa Maria Petapa and San Miguel Chimalapa, and the evenness of the grounds, plainly indicate that it would not be a work of great difficulty, nor excessively costly, to effect a communication between the two seas across this isthmus. In the supposition that the waters of the rivers Almoloya and Citune were held back, a canal might be opened to join them with those of the San Miguel or Chicapa, the course of which into the Pacific Ocean, by the bar of San Francisco, passes by the Venta de Chicapa, and from this spot forwards there are no further difficulties, because it is one perfect plain as far as Tehuantepec."

It was with reference to these results that Baron de Humboldt, after having very properly asserted that until then "the topography of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec was quite unknown in Europe," adds, "we cannot doubt that this point of the globe deserves no less attention than the Lake of Nicaragua."

In 1820, Robinson, speaking upon the same subject, writes, "We will now proceed to examine another (route for a canal) which, although it be deficient in some of the natural advantages of Costa Rica, still possesses others of so important a character as to render it almost doubtful to us at which of the two places the desired communication ought first to be opened."

And, speaking of the Coatzacoalcos, he adds, "it is the only port in the Mexican gulf where vessels of war, and others of a large size, can enter, and is far superior either to Pensacola or Espiritu Santo. There are at all seasons on the bar, at the mouth of that port, twenty-two feet water."

In the year 1824, the state of Vera Cruz and the federal governments appointed each a commission to survey the isthmus: the former chose Don Tadeo Ortiz, and the latter selected Colonel Don Juan de Orbegozo of the general staff.

The attention of Ortiz was specially directed to colonisation, and the cultivation of these fertile districts, upon which he enlarges with much enthusiasm. He also proposed to render the Coatzacoalcos navigable to the confluence of the Malatengo; and further to construct a road from this point to the Pacific, passing through the Portillo de Tarifa, the Venta de Chicapa, and the lagoons.

The bar of the Coatzacoalcos is said by him "to be permanent and constant, forming two canals or channels; that to the left or the west has on it in the rainy season (that is, from the beginning of June to the end of February) three and a half fathoms of water, or twenty-one feet, these being increased to twenty-three at high tides. That on the right or to the east, has two and a half fathoms, or fifteen feet, and both during the dry season lessen three or four feet, the principal channel maintaining itself at not less than eighteen feet, except perhaps under extraordinary circumstances. When a vessel would effect an entrance, with a view only to greater security, the fifteen feet channel should be preferred, because it has less current in it, and is probably wider, and because, when the sea-breeze blows hard, the currents are rapid in the great channel setting from east to west, and without taking a pilot it would be difficult, if not dangerous, to be entered by vessels of great draft of water.

"Since the direction of the channels is from north to south, we are of opinion that vessels can enter with the wind from north, north-east, and the easterly and southerly monsoons, by keeping to the wind. The prevailing winds offer no difficulty with the same precaution, only attending to the currents, which as before said, run with rapidity from the east to the west, and might cause vessels to be stranded. However, there are pro-

bably some periodical variations to the phenomena, which mariners would be the most competent to appreciate for their guidance.

"The departure of vessels by both channels cannot of course take place with the above winds, but easily with those from the south and west, and off the land. The latter of which almost every day prevails, at least during the rainy season, from after midnight till eight or nine in the morning, when the sea-breezes commence, on which account vessels should proceed to sea after five o'clock, A.M., until seven, but not later than eight, which is allowing sufficient time for vessels to be beyond the danger of drifting into the dangerous iron-bound bay, which is formed by the ridge of San Martin, running out to a promontory."

These difficulties for the entrance and exit of vessels, would be obviated by steam-tugs at the mouth of the harbour.

The survey of Senor Orbegozo was made contemporaneously with that of Senor Ortiz, but he admits that he was in want of many things, and that on this account the results of his rapid examination must be defective under the unfavourable circumstances in which he was placed.

Senor Orbegozo found, as well as Senor Ortiz, that it would be both easy and advantageous to render the Coatzacoalcos navigable as far as the confluence with the Alaman (or Malatengo); and from this point he proposes a carriage-road to be made as far as the lagoons, passing by the Chivela instead of by the Portillo de Tarifa, as proposed by Ortiz.

Signor Moro and his assistants, well provided with proper instruments, arrived at Tehuantepec on the 28th of May, 1842. The journey from Mexico had occupied nearly a month, and the roads were so bad that almost all the instruments had been more or less injured.

"In the description of the Coatzacoalcos, given by Captain Robles, I have not found any thing that does not agree with my own observations and notes, excepting the width of 700 metres attributed to the river near its mouth, where it is widest. Judging from sight only, I had supposed it to be 500 at the utmost; but as Messrs. Robles and Gonzalez measured that distance by means of a micrometer, it is probable that my calculation was incorrect. Besides, this question, after all, is quite insignificant, and I only mention it that the report of our operations may be as correct and accurate as possible."

The following report is literally the same as that which was forwarded by Captain Robles after his exploration:—

The river Coatzacoalcos, according to the report of Captain Robles, takes its rise in the unexplored part of the Sierra Madre, and the highest point in its course visited by Signor Moro, was at its confluence with the Chimalapilla, from whence he examined it to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, situated in 17 deg. 8 min. 30 sec. north latitude, and 94 deg. 17 min. west longitude from Greenwich.

The Chimalapilla flows into the Coatzacoalcos on its right bank, seven kilometres, about four miles and one-third English, to the south-south-east of the village of Santa Maria Chimalapa. At this confluence it is 119 metres,* or about 396 feet above the level of the sea.

* The metre is equal to 3 feet, 3,371 inches.

The kilometre is equal to 1093, 6389 yards.

1 English mile is equal to 1609 3-10 French metres.

1 English mile is equal to 1760 English yards.

On the same side, and at a short distance below the Chimalapilla, is the confluence of the River del Pinal, so called because it flows through mountains on which pine-trees were cut by the Spanish government and sent to the Havannah for the masts of large ships. This part of the Coatzacoalcos is still called the River del Corte (of the cutting).

As far as the confluence with the River del Milagro, which joins on the left at two kilometres and a half to the west-north-west of Santa Maria, the Coatzacoalcos flows through a deep ravine, with a descent of forty metres in the space of nineteen kilometres, that is 0.21 metres in every 100 metres. "The mountains which border the channel are at first very high and precipitous, but gradually lowering and softening in their character as the mouth of the Milagro is approached, they then appear only as hills of moderate elevation, and the river has changed from being a rapid torrent, in which the rafts could with difficulty float, into a quiet stream, with only occasional rapids of small extent. The rocks on the banks of the river are of sandstone, calcareous spar, and slate, although this last but rarely occurs. The limestone is excavated by the river, which appears to pass under the ruins of a bridge."

On small patches, on the borders of the river, the Indians of Santa Maria plant maize, tobacco, and cocoa; some of these tracts of land are only accessible on rafts, and others only by craggy pathways.

Beyond the confluence of the Milagro, the river previously running from east to west, flows towards the south-west as far as the junction of the Escolapa.

From the Malatengo to the mouth of the Sarabia, the depth is generally from one-and-a-half to two-and-a-half metres, and sometimes even five metres deep, or from about five to sixteen feet.

Mal Paso has a strong rapid a little below it formed of various ridges of calcareous spar and granite, and for a distance of about 180 metres, or about 200 yards.

After the junction of the Sarabia the hills are inconsiderable, and nearly disappear a little below the River Jumuapa (or de la Puerta); the rapids are less frequent, and the last, called the Suchil, occurs before reaching the mouth of the River Jaltepec.

The rivers Sarabia, Jumuapa, and Jaltepec, flow into the Coatzacoalcos from the left bank, and the Chalchijapa the right hand.

The course of the Coatzacoalcos from the confluence of the Malatengo to that of the Jumuapa is from south to north; then from north-west until it meets the Jaltepec; and thence to the bar about north-east. The whole length of the Coatzacoalcos, from the mouth of the Malatengo to the Sarabia is thirty-five kilometres; from the Sarabia to the Jumuapa, twenty-seven kilometres; from the Jumuapa to the Chalchijapa, thirty-six kilometres; and to the Horqueta, sixty-five kilometres more, being a distance of 163 kilometres, or about 110 English miles between the Malatengo and the Horqueta.

The banks, after leaving the hills, are not steep, and generally from three to five metres high: they are occasionally covered by the floods. At some few places, the *cerritos*, or hillocks, are from twelve to twenty metres high, and are formed of clay.

Where these low and sloping banks occur, the river spreads laterally, and the slowness of the current, after the confluence of the Jaltepec is scarcely apparent, the depth of the stream does not therefore increase; and during the dry season, the shoals are covered only by half a metre, about twenty inches, of water. These shoals are formed of sand and gravel. Those of any extent are, the one commencing below Tecolotepec, which occupies the greater part of the bend of Cascajal; that between the River Naranjo and the brook Churriagao; that of Cuapinoloya, between the island of this name and one a little lower down; and lastly, that of Horqueta, obstructing the entrance of the two branches of the river which divide at this point.

These branches unite after having formed the Island of Tacamichapa. The one to the west is longer and narrower than that to the east called Apotzongo. The length of the first is fifty-five kilometres; its width between ninety metres and 100 metres, or about twenty metres to thirty metres less than the river was before its separation, and the depth is above four metres. Several streams fall into it. In the west there occurs the Paso de la Cienaga, which is only two leagues distant from the village of Jaltipan; and in this same branch is the pass of Blancos, at a distance of twenty-one kilometres from the town of Aca-yucam, the capital of the district.

The Apotzongo, or largest branch, is forty kilometres long, and on its right bank, twenty-nine kilometres from Horqueta, is the village of San Miguel de los Almagres (or Hidalgo-titlan), the first inhabited place met with coming down the river. Below this point the water is constantly six metres to seven metres deep; but a little above Los Almagres, between the strands of Mistan-grande and Gaviota, it is interrupted by a large shoal.

Below the re-junction, the Coatzacoalcos receives from the right the streamlet Ishuatepec, the stream of Otapa, and the River Coachapa, the mouth of which is sixteen kilometres from the lower end of the Island of Tacamichapa. The source of this river is unknown, and the district it traverses is a desert; it has been ascended in canoes for twelve days, which is the same time as that occupied in going up from the bar of the Coatzacoalcos to the pass of Sarabia, and schooners have also sailed up it to a sugar plantation twelve kilometres above the entrance. Three leagues higher up, it receives the river Coachapa, into which flow the waters that leave the Coatzacoalcos at Cascajal. The stream Otapa flows from some small lagoons which yield salt.

Seven kilometres below the confluence of the Coachapa, and on the opposite

shore, is the village of La Fabrica, or Milan-titlan; and at seven kilometres more below this, the River Uspanapan joins the Coatzacoalcos from the right.

Half-way, between the River Coachapa and Mina-titlan, on the left bank in front of an islet, are the creeks Tacojalpa, Ojozapa, and Cuamecatan, a place where the pine logs for the arsenal at the Havannah were formerly brought for exportation.

Of the villages founded by Don Tadeo Ortiz, only Mina-titlan and Hidalgo-titlan now exist.

The Uspanapan is the most considerable tributary of the Coatzacoalcos; its course is broad, flowing through an uninhabited country; its sources are unknown, but generally supposed to come from a range of mountains, often visible to the south-east from the upper part of the Coatzacoalcos. This range has the reputation of being rich in gold and silver minerals, and has been explored by expeditions, which ascended the river in canoes for sixteen to eighteen days, and some are said to have done this even for twenty-six days. On the banks of this river, at thirty-eight kilometres from its mouth, a Mr. Baldwin of Mina-titlan built a schooner a few years since.

Below the Uspanapan, near Paso Nuevo, the high road runs, leading to Tobasco. At sixteen and a half kilometres below Uspanapan, and eight and a half kilometres from the bar, from the left, the confluence River Tierra Nueva, or the Calzades, flows in, and is the channel by which the Coatzacoalcos unites with the River Huasuntan, which empties itself into the sea by the Barrilla, not passable for vessels of any size.

The banks of the river here are very low, frequently flooded, and there are many creeks.

The depth of the Coatzacoalcos, from the junction of the branches which form the Island of Tacamichapa to the mouth of the Coachapa, is eight metres, rather more than four and a quarter fathoms; and from this to the bar, not less than ten metres to twelve metres, or four-and-a-half fathoms to six-and-a-half fathoms. Its breadth, where narrowest, is from 120 metres to 150 metres; and in some places below the mouth of Tierra Nueva, it is nearly 7000 metres. As far as the Island of Tacamichapa, a distance of fifty-five kilometres (thirteen Mexican leagues nearly, or rather more than thirty-four English miles), or at least up to the confluence of the Coachapa, the Coatzacoalcos is navigable in all seasons and for every class of ships, forming a convenient as well as a most secure harbour. Schooners might ascend as far as Horqueta by the Mistan branch and to Hidalgo-titlan, and higher by that of Apotzongo.

From the battery on the left entrance of the river, the channel is to be seen through the breakers on the bar, which is said never to vary its position. Signor Moro says:

“We know well that there is a sufficient depth of water for large ships (since but

a few years ago two large French vessels with colonists had entered the channel), we examined it ourselves in an open boat, going out to the distance of 3000 metres, where we found fifteen metres water with a rapidly increasing depth. The shallowest water we found on the bar was 6.2 metres, and we were not certain that we had gone over the deepest part of it.* A North American pilot, who resides in the establishment of Mr. Baldwin, assured us that he had many times crossed the bar, and that he had never found less water upon it than twenty-one English feet, equivalent to 6.4 metres. This account nearly agrees with our own observation, and confirms the old opinion that the bar does not shift, a circumstance easily explained, since the current of the river is slow, and the tides are almost imperceptible at its mouth."

In the vast forests which cover the shores of this river and its tributaries, excellent ship-building timber, as well as dye-woods, are to be found in profusion; the principal trees seen are the tall pine trees of the Sierra de Chimalapa; the large cedars along the river, especially above the stream of the Perlas; superb mahogany, and other hard and close-grained trees, such as *javicues*, *huayacanes*, *macayos*, and *paques*, from the latter of which crooked timbers were cut in the time of the Spanish government for vessels of the largest burden.

The abundance of durable ship-timber which grows on the borders of the river,—the convenience and security of the port,—the facility of defending its entrance by batteries, all combine to render *the Coatzacoalcos the fittest place in the Gulf of Mexico for the establishment of a depôt*. These advantages were suggested to the Spanish government by the engineer Cramer, in the year 1774. In 1778, another engineer, Don Miguel del Corral, submitted to the viceroy a plan for the construction of an arsenal, with two slips for vessels of every size, and a fort to defend the entrance of the river.

M. Moro says,—

"The various plans which I am about to submit, are formed on the supposition of Coatzacoalcos being rendered navigable as far as its confluence with the Malatengo, and and the Bocca barra of San Francisco fitted for the admission of large vessels. Both these ends are, in my opinion, attainable without having to overcome extraordinary difficulties."

Of the five projects of Signor Garay and of Signor Moro, the last is that which they decide as the best. After having conveyed by a trench to the immediate neighbourhood of Tarifa, as a summit level, the waters of the Ostuta and Chicapa, the next consideration would be to take advantage of the beds of the rivers, which from that point flow toward both oceans. The stream of Tarifa, and the rivers Chichihua and Malatengo, might be rendered navigable, or followed on the one side, and on the other the Monetza and the Chicapa.

The commissioners say they "do not pretend to have indicated the *only* means of effecting the desired canal transit, much less do they flatter themselves of having proposed the best, and only hope to have been the means of showing the practicability of the undertaking."

* "When we reached the greatest distance from the land, the rusty shanks of the rudder of our boat broke, and this compelled us to return immediately, without taking any other soundings, as we had intended."

"ESTIMATE OF EXPENSE.—Dutens, speaking of the Caledonian Canal, which he visited before its completion, observes, that 'in a great undertaking of this kind it is impossible to pre-estimate the cost of every part.'

"If in Europe, where it is comparatively easy to obtain correct data in these matters, it is considered venturesome to name beforehand a sum as the probable cost of an undertaking of this nature, it must necessarily be more difficult to do so in the present case, from the want of the requisite particulars. However, by making use of proper investigations, and tending to over-estimate the expense rather than to diminish it, I trust to come near the truth; nor is it possible to expect more in our present disadvantageous position.

"It would be an error to suppose that every portion of the work must, in our case, cost more than it would in Europe. The prodigious quantity of timber of the best quality which the projector is authorised to use at pleasure, in virtue of the grant made to him by government, and which lies profusely in every part through which the canal would pass; the excellent kinds of building stone, the lime, bitumen, clay, and all other necessary materials, which nature seems to have taken pleasure in scattering in the most convenient spots; and, lastly, the ground and the waters, the acquisition of which occasions often considerable expenditure, and which, in our case, if it did occasion any at all, would be so trifling as not even to be worth mentioning, are all advantages in favour of our undertaking, and which very few of the same kind in Europe could easily command.

"The canal, which I have taken as a model, is the Caledonian, the dimensions of which appear to me sufficient. To alter them much would occasion a considerable increase in the expenditure, perhaps without a suitable compensation, whilst the alteration required in the dimensions of some of its parts for the admission of steamers destined to a transatlantic navigation, would not make it much more expensive.

"Each lock of the Caledonian canal cost, upon an average, 200,000 francs, and therefore the whole twenty-seven amounted to five millions and a half.

"Selecting the proper ground, the declivity of the proposed canal is :

From the table-land of Tarifa to the Pacific 200 metres.

From the same point to the mouth of the Malatengo 160 „

"Giving to it a number of locks proportionate to that of the Caledonian canal, there would be required :

On the side of the Pacific 89 locks

On the side of the Atlantic 72 „

Total number of locks 161

But he reduces this number to 150.

"The longitude of our canal would be eighty kilometres, or nearly forty-nine miles and three-quarters.

"The trench, intended to convey to Tarifa the united waters of the Ostuta and the Chicapa, would be about twenty-five kilometres in length, or about sixteen miles and an eighth, and we will give to the section of its excavations forty square metres of surface. We will take ten francs as the cost of excavating a cubic metre of ground according to what is actually paid in Mexico and the United States for a similar work in soils analogous to that of the isthmus.

"The trench necessary to join the Ostuta to the Chicapa might be five kilometres in length at the utmost, and allowing for unforeseen obstacles in this part of the country on account of the nature of its rocks, we will suppose it to cost three millions of francs.

"Lastly, let us apply four millions more to regulate the course of the Coatzacoalcos and to excavate the lakes and the Bocabarra.

"Then, summing up the preceding calculations, the total amount of the work will be found to consist of the following sums :

Cost of 150 locks at 200,000 francs	30,000,000 francs.
„ 80 kilometres of canal at 475,000 francs . . .	38,000,000 „
„ 25 kilometres of trench, at ten francs per cubic metre	10,000,000 „
„ 5 kilometres of trench at fifteen francs . . .	3,000,000 „
Regulation of the Coatzacoalcos, lakes, and Bocabarra	4,000,000 „
Total cost	85,000,000 „
Or sterling	£ 3,400,000

Other estimates have since been made, which calculated the expense at 20,000,000*l.* sterling.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCH OF THE ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC.—Robinson, who examined the locality, says—

“If, on a topographical survey of the isthmus, it shall be found practicable to cut a canal, there is no place where such an undertaking could be accomplished with such ease, as in the province of Oajaca. In its boundaries are comprehended a great part of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Its salubrity is unequalled on the American continent; even its shores on the Pacific Ocean appear exempted from the usual diseases which afflict the inhabitants of the Atlantic and South Sea coasts.

“The population of Tehuantepec are among the most active and healthy race of Indians we have ever seen, and the cutting of a canal through such parts of the isthmus, as an accurate survey shall show to be fittest for that purpose, could be performed with the greatest facility by the inhabitants of Oajaca.”

Mr. Michel Chevalier, who lately visited America, speaking of the isthmus, in one of his recent publications (*Revue des Deux Mondes*, January 1st, 1844), says :

“The exploration of General Orbegozo, confirmed the presence of a magnificent vegetation in the isthmus, which proves the fertility of its soil. Even previous to the voyage of Humboldt, the beautiful forests of Tarifa had attracted the attention of the court of Spain. The fertility of the extensive plain of Tehuantepec was also ascertained, no less than the healthfulness of the country at some distance from the sea. Besides it being well known that the isthmus was once densely populated, there seems to be no reason why it could not be so again.”

During the long sojourn of the commission, under Signor Moro, in the isthmus, they, with their numerous attendants, had often to undergo severe toils, and were frequently exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, but none of them experienced any illness.

The Isthmus of Tehuantepec is comprised within the Mexican Republic, and forms part of the departments of Oajaca and Vera Cruz. According to the official reports, published by the Mexican government December, 1841, as a basis for the elections, the former department contained a population of 500,278 inhabitants, and the latter 250,380.

The boundaries of these two districts are not yet definitely settled.

This undefined boundary is a natural consequence of the unsettled state of the country. The coasts of the isthmus are the only inhabited portions, and they are separated from each other by an immense forest.

The southern division in the department of Oajaca, or Oxaca, is naturally

divided into two sections. The first occupies the plain which extends from the Pacific Ocean to the foot of the Sierra, and the second comprises the Sierra.

Politically, the southern districts of the isthmus constitute the greater part of Tehuantepec, and comprise twenty-four municipalities; the town of Tehuantepec, which the Spaniards called also Guadalcazar, is the head of the district, and the residence of a prefect, a judge, a military commander, and a parish priest. Juchitan and Petapa are the heads of two sub-districts with their respective sub-prefects.

Ecclesiastically this division is dependant on the Bishop of Oajaca, and in addition to the parish of Tehuantepec has five rectories.

The whole of the southern territory of the isthmus is estimated to contain about 31,000 inhabitants.

This population is composed of Europeans, Huaves, Zapotecos, Mijes Soques, and Zamboes.

The *Europeans*, constitute an insignificant number of the population.

The *Huaves* are in all little more than three thousand, and occupy the four villages of the coast called San Mateo, Santa Maria, San Dionisio, and San Francisco.

These natives differ materially in their aspect from the other inhabitants of the isthmus. They are robust and well-formed; some among them are intelligent, but the majority are grossly ignorant.

The Huaves of both sexes are generally in a state of almost complete nudity. Their industry consists of little else than fishing: with the produce of their fisheries, however, they carry on some trade. Not possessing vessels to venture into deep water, they only frequent shallow places such as marshes, and the margin of the lakes and of the sea. Although the Huaves are chiefly fishermen, very few among them know how to swim.

The *Zapotecos* constitute the greater part of the southern population of the isthmus, almost exclusively,—sixteen villages out of twenty-four. According to a manuscript obtained by the secretary of the commission, “Montezuma, Emperor of Mexico, after subjugating the Huaves, proceeded to the conquest of Guatemala, but whilst he struggled with the difficulties of the war, Cosijoesa, King of Teozapotlan and of the Zapotec nation, assisted by the King of Misteca, drove the Mexicans away, took possession of Tehuantepec, and maintained the Huaves in subjection.

“Although Cosijopi did not offer any resistance to the Spaniards, the Zapotecos opposed their progress towards the interior. Cortes, speaking in one of his letters of two provinces which he intended to conquer, says:

“The people of one of them are called Zapotecos, and that of the other Mijes, which provinces are so rugged that they cannot be traversed even on foot, since I have

twice sent troops to conquer them, and they have not been able to succeed, these people being very strong and well-armed, and the country almost impassable."

The Zapotecos are said to maintain the fame for valour which they have always enjoyed.

The natives of Tehuantepec are in civilisation superior to those of any other part of the republic. Moro says he "found them intelligent, industrious, docile, and joyous.

"In point of personal appearance the Tehuantepecans are vigorous, and of a pleasing aspect, and I may say, that of the Indians with whom I am acquainted they are perhaps the only people who possess what may be called a *fair sex*.

"It appears evident to me that these qualities are not inherent to the Zapotec race, but a consequence of their admixture with the Europeans; for I have observed that the Zapotecos, who inhabit the mountains, and the valley of Oajaca, are similar to the natives of the rest of the republic, and bear no resemblance whatever to those of Tehuantepec, among whom there are many with light hair, and a complexion comparatively fair.

"It is well known that Cortes had collected a great number of Spaniards in the Isthmus, which was his favourite spot. The women of Tehuantepec enjoy some celebrity in the republic for their charms; and the predilection which they show towards the Europeans, together with a rather over degree of sociability, render this supposition very probable. While speaking of the women of this part of the isthmus I will add, that they are also noted for their graceful carriage, and the regularity of their features: their gala-dress is picturesque, rich, and elegant, as well as the head-dress which they generally wear."

The Zapotecos have some branches of industry. In Tehuantepec there are bakers, carpenters, smiths, tinkers, silversmiths, tanners, shoemakers, saddlers, and as the secretary of the commission observes, "every family, whatever may be their circumstances, manufacture the soap necessary for home consumption." The clothes woven by the women from wild silk and cotton are really admirable, particularly considering the very imperfect instruments which they possess for the purpose.

The *Mijes* were formerly a powerful nation: they still occupy the land from the Sierra, north of Tehuantepec, to the district of Chiapas. In the isthmus they inhabit the village of Guichicovi, and a small portion of the Sierra is never visited.

Physically and morally speaking, they are a degraded race, of repulsive aspect, and grossly ignorant. They, however, grow plantains, maize, beans, and sugar-cane, from the latter of which they extract an impure kind of sugar, which they supply to the southern division of the isthmus.

The ambition of the *Mijes* of Guichicovi is that of possessing the greatest possible number of mules, of which they make no use, not even for the carriage of goods, which they prefer carrying on their own backs.

The *Mijes* are idolaters, and pollute the altars of the Catholic churches with the blood of birds, which they offer as victims to other deities. Their number is about 5000.

The *Soques* came originally from Chiapas. They inhabit in the isthmus the

villages of San Miguel and Santa Maria Chimalapa. They are distinguished from the other inhabitants of these regions by their repulsive features.

In point of morality the Soques appear somewhat more rational than the Mijes, and they are naturally kind and obliging.

The Soques cultivate maize for their own consumption, a small quantity of tobacco, and two plants of the *bromelias*, from which they extract the *iztle* and the *pita*, the fibres of which they bleach, weave, and dye of different colours. Their spun threads, and the hammocks which they weave with them, constitute their chief industry.

The inhabitants of Santa Maria extract also some annatto, and supply the southern part of the isthmus with a delicious orange, which grows abundantly.

The *Zamboes*, a half-caste between the Indian and the Negro, chiefly inhabit the estates of the Marquisate del Valle. They are also mixed with the Zapotecos in the villages of Zanatepec, Niltepec, Petapa, Barrio, and Santo Domingo.

The Zamboes are descended from African slaves, brought to the Marquesanas estates by the successors of Cortes, and to the Frailescas possessed by the Dominican friars in the territory of Zanatepec. They are robust and industrious, labourers in the fields, and applying themselves to the cultivation of wheat, indigo, and cochineal. Neither the Zambocs nor the other natives of these districts are remarkable for sobriety.

The climate of that portion of Tehuantepec, which in this part of the isthmus extends from the shores of the Pacific to the foot of the Sierra, is generally warm and dry, a circumstance to which is attributed its salubrity.

The climate of the elevated section of the isthmus is so different from that of the plains, that when the thermometer stands in the latter place at 30 deg., it scarcely rises to 13 deg. at Chivela or Tarifa. In all the heights surrounding these estates, we find the *pine ocote*, which indicates a temperate climate.

The summits of the Sierra Madre are generally enveloped in clouds, which coming from the Atlantic, there discharge their waters on the heights. This accounts for the rivers of the isthmus having an almost constant body of water during the greater part of the year. At Guichicovi and Santa Maria Chimalapa it rains almost incessantly.

MINERALS.—Iron is found in abundance in many parts of the isthmus, and that of Tarifa appears to be of excellent quality. As regards the precious metals, for which the department of Oajaca was formerly famous, there is a tradition still prevalent, that the mountains of Mijes and the upper Uspanapan contain rich gold and silver mines.

VEGETABLES.—The mangrove tree (*Rhizophora mangel*) is not so common on the coasts of the isthmus as on others of Mexico. In the southern division, it is found in the neighbourhood of San Francisco and of the Morro.

In the Peninsula of San Mateo and Santa Maria, the most remarkable trees

are the tamarind, palm, and cocoa-nut, besides which there is generally a luxuriant vegetation.

The land to the north of the lower eastern lagoon, in which the grounds of the Huaves of San Dionisio and San Francisco are situated, appear clothed with a vegetation, somewhat resembling that of the parks in Europe. The flowers in some of these localities are of splendid brilliancy.

Between the coast and the Sierra the plain is partly covered with acacias.

On approaching the Sierra the vegetation is more vigorous, and the Brazil-wood tree (*Cæsalpinia crista*) becomes very common. The granadillo, the mahogany tree (*Swietenia mahogani*), the copalchi (*Croton cascarilla*), and the dragon tree (*Pterocarpus draco*), make their appearance as well as many other shrubs that yield resins and balsams, to which the natives ascribe marvellous virtues. There are also the fustic (*Morus tinctoria*), and according to Don Tadeo Ortiz, the log-wood (*Hæmatoxylon campechianum*), as well as a considerable number of other trees, both picturesque and useful for the hardness and durability of their wood.

Both the soil and the climate are favourable to the cultivation of indigo and the sugar-cane, and those tracks of land which are protected from the winds produce cotton of excellent quality.

The table-land and hills between Tarifa and the Barrio appear covered with grass which affords excellent pasturage for cattle. The valleys abound with palm-trees, and there grows the ocote pine (*Pinus religiosa*?) which has some affinity with the pinus picea. The latter is also found on the summits of the hills between the above places and Santa Maria Chimalapa, alternately with the tropical plants which grow in the lower portions of the ground.

The luxuriance of the vegetation in the latter places exhibits a multitude of plants; however, the guayacan (*Diospyros lotus*), the cedar, the mahogany, the rosewood, the *gateado*, and the ebony, are there abundant. The amber-tree (*Liquidambar styraciflua*), from which is extracted the resin of the same name, and the tree yielding the Peru balsam (*Myroxylon peruiferum*), and the ocozotl, producing a gum very similar to the true amber, grow also in this district.

Two kinds of vine, bearing good grapes, the plantain, the orange-tree, two species spontaneous cocoa (*Theobroma cacao*), and the sapo-tatree of various kinds abound.

Several kinds of *indigoferas*: the *bixa orellana*, from which the annotto is extracted, the sarsaparilla (*Smilax salsaparilla*), the ginger (*Amomum zingiber*) two kinds of vanilla, are very common.

The table-land of Cerro Atravesado is covered with excellent pasture grass, and a splendid wood of pine ocotes.

Signor Moro says,—

“The southern side of the most elevated portion of the chain appeared to me profusely covered with majestic oak-trees.

"To the right of the upper Coatzacoalcas, or river Del Corte, are found in abundance various kinds of pines, and among them it would appear is the *Pinus abies*, which the Spanish government used to send to the dock-yard at the Havannah for the construction of ship-masts. According to Don Tadeo Ortiz, many of these trees are from two to four metres in diameter, and of a prodigious height; they are found at the very banks of the river. The plains watered by the rivers Malatengo, Chichihua, and Almoloya (the latter of which takes in its lower course the name of Guelaguesa) are noted in the isthmus for their delightful aspect. When speaking of the exploration of these rivers I have alluded to this fact, and therefore I will now only add, that the vegetation in them is similar, and perhaps even more luxuriant than that of the low grounds on the road to Santa Maria. The soil and climate are likewise peculiarly adapted to the growth of maize, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, rice, and the sugar-cane.

"On the road from Boca de Monte to the Mal Paso, the vegetation begins to assume an aspect peculiar to the plains of the Coatzacoalcas. The laurus sassafras, the fern tree, an infinite variety of palms, and the plants of the tropical regions already alluded to, united and interwoven with passion flowers, and innumerable filamentous reeds; or richly enveloped and crowned by a multitude of exquisitely beautiful orquidacæ, formed an admirable and sublime spectacle. But the peculiar characteristic of these shrubberies is, that the plants concealed in the midst of this luxuriant vegetation appear desirous to reach as soon as possible, an elevation where they may enjoy the rays of the sun, thus acquiring an extraordinary height, and their stems being remarkably straight."

WILD ANIMALS.—Sigor Monro informs us, that in every estate of this isthmus a *tigrero* (tiger-man) is kept, who with a numerous pack of hounds is exclusively engaged in destroying wild beasts, which cause serious damage among the herds of cattle, notwithstanding the immense number of deer, hares, and rabbits on which they could and do also prey. As soon as the dogs discover one of these animals they set off in pursuit, and soon compel him to climb a tree for protection, where he is quickly despatched by the tigrero's rifle.

The wild beast most common in the isthmus is that which is improperly called a tiger by the inhabitants, it being in reality the ounce (*Felis uncia*); after this comes the American lion or puma (*Felis discolor*); they are both numerous, but, it is said, never attack man. The ocellots, or small tiger (*Leopardus pardalis*), the wild cat, and the American fox (*Vulpes fulvus*), and martens are also numerous.

The most remarkable animal, in proportion to its size, is the tapir (*Tapirus terrestris*), which abound in great numbers in the upper course of the rivers Chicapa and Ostuta, as well as all the wild parts of the Sierra. The flesh has an agreeable taste.

In the Upper Ostuta there are considerable herds of wild cattle, the progeny of those which escaped into the woods from the old estates called Frailescas.

There are two kinds of hog common; one called the wild boar, bears no resemblance to the wild boar of Europe; the other the peccari, *Dicotyles tayacu* of zoology. The male has on the back a gland that contains a foetid humour, but its flesh, especially that of the female, is delicious food.

In the woods, multitudes of monkeys, of the genera *Lagothrix* and *Ateles*.

Deer, rabbits, and hares are said to be innumerable.

Of the feathered tribe, the crax alector, improperly called pheasant, the wild turkey (*Meleagris gallo pavo*), the chachalaca (*Ortalida garrula*), parrots of beau-

tiful plumage, the partridge, the quail, the wild pigeon, and ducks of various kinds abound.

Among the reptiles are the guana, the flesh of which is considered by the natives delicate food. There are also the most dangerous kinds of serpents, such as the rattle-snake (*Crotalus horridus*), the coral coloured, and many others.

The lagoons, the rivers and the sea, contain a great variety and abundance of fish, and tortoises and turtles of various kinds. The divers of other coasts are in the habit of coming to the neighbourhood of the Morro in quest of tortoise-shell, coral, and pearl. The natives find also near the Morro a kind of purple shell-fish, from which they extract a substance much in use among them as a dye. The alligator inhabits the lakes near the coast.

The most remarkable products of insects are the honey and wax which the bees supply, and enormous bags of raw silk suspended by small worms from the branches of trees, which the women of Tehuantepec turn to useful account.

A road from the coast of the Pacific to the navigable portion of the Coatzacoalcos, opening a communication between the two seas, has been twice established. This took place first at the time of the conquest, and the second towards the end of the eighteenth century. At present scarcely any vestige remains of those roads, and the isthmus remains chiefly an unproductive waste.

AGRICULTURE.—“The estates,” says Senor Garay, “which more particularly deserve attention, both for their extent and for the improvement of which they are susceptible, are those called *Haciendas Marquesanas*, from being entailed in favour of Hernan Cortes, Marquis del Valle, whose descendants enjoyed them up to a late period.”

These estates are situated between the Barrio de la Soledad and the course of the rivers Malatengo and Chichihua, the stream of Zopiluapa, and the River del Cazadero. At present they belong to Messrs. Guergue and Maqueo, merchants of Oajaca, the former a Spaniard and the latter an Italian.

The produce most cultivated is maize for making *tortillas*; but the wanting roads to facilitate its carriage makes the inhabitants grow only as much as they require for their own consumption, which is insignificant, as the woods and rivers furnish them with an abundance of provisions.

Some attention is also paid to the cultivation of the sugar cane. There is a sugar factory in the neighbourhood of Chihuitan, belonging to Messrs. H. Gobert and Olivier Gourjon, the former a German and the latter a Frenchman.

According to Don Pedro de Garay, “this establishment, founded but a few years ago, can yield 50,000 kilogrammes of sugar, representing there a value of 45,000 francs, and 20,000 francs more for the brandy distilled from the molasses. Should the plantation and cultivation of the sugar-cane receive the encouragement of which they are susceptible, this estate alone might supply the sugar requisite for the consumption of the whole district of Tehuantepec, which may at present be considered to amount to about 125,000 kilogrammes.”

Senor Garay observes “that these are not the only plantations of sugar-cane existing

in the isthmus, and that the Indians of Guichicovi especially manufacture an impure sugar, used for the confection of brandy. This spirit is chiefly distilled at Tehuantepec, Juchitan, and Itzaltepec. Senor Garay estimates at 40,000 francs the total value of the brandy consumed in the southern part of the isthmus, to which he thinks ought to be added 30,000 francs for the *mescal*, a kind of brandy extracted in those places from the leaves of the American agave."

The most important agricultural produce in this part of the country is indigo. The secretary of the commission under Signor Moro remarks—

"It is of such excellent quality as to be in request in all parts of the republic, and it is also exported abroad. An average crop will produce about 60,000 kilogrammes, representing a value of 600,000 francs. Its cultivation demands scarcely any attention, as the plant continues to be productive for the long period of three years. It has been often calculated that the expense of the cultivation of indigo in fruitful years, before it acquires its perfect growth, does not exceed 3.75 francs per kilogramme, whilst its value is never less than ten francs.

"The settlements where this important cultivation is most flourishing are Juchitan, Itzaltepec, San Gerónimo, Chihuitan, and generally throughout the whole districts of Tehuantepec."

The cochineal insect of these parts is the best in quality of any known, but its cultivation is almost entirely abandoned. Gum is so abundant, that according to Senor Garay, the neighbourhood of Juchitan alone will furnish 300,000 kilogrammes.

CATTLE.—Formerly numerous herds of cattle grazed in the southern division of the isthmus. Don Tadeo Ortiz says, that in the Frailescas estates alone there were more than 30,000 head of horned cattle, besides a considerable quantity of horses. At present there are not more than 1500 of the former, and only a few hundreds of the latter.

According to the memoranda of the secretary of the commission, the number of horses and mules may be estimated at 25,000, and that of the sheep at 1500. No use whatever is made of the hides.

FISHERIES.—The shrimp and dry fish prepared by the Huaves in the four villages of the coast, besides providing for the consumption of the inhabitants of the country, are carried in rather large quantities to Oajaca.

SALT PITS.—The secretary of the commission says—

"That salt pits are so numerous, that it would be difficult to determine the quantity of salt they yield; but from a proximate calculation, made with the assistance of some well-informed persons, their produce may be estimated during the period when they were worked on account of the government at 35,000 kilogrammes; and it may be asserted with truth, that the whole of their produce was not turned to account, since it is no exaggeration to say that from Huamelula to Tonalá the entire intervening space is one continued salt mine. This salt is highly esteemed in various parts of the republic, both for its purity and its whiteness. The principal consumption takes place in the departments of Chiapas and Oajaca, the annual produce derived from it being about 200,000 francs. This salt was sold at the public administration of Tehuantepec at six francs per kilogramme, and somewhat less when sold in the works themselves. Its cost to the government was not more than one franc twenty-five cents for every 100 kilogrammes; since being of spontaneous formation, and not requiring any operation whatever, the expense was limited to the mere carriage from the works to the place of deposit."

MANUFACTURES.—As to manufactures, the inhabitants confine themselves

chiefly to leather-dressing and harness-making. At Tehuantepec and Juchitan doe-skins are prepared of any colour required, and with considerable skill. Other kinds of skin are also tanned there, and the sole-leather and dressed ox-hides of Tehuantepec are esteemed. Shoes and saddles manufactured of them are occasionally sent to Guatemala and the interior of the republic. They also make cotton stuff of considerable fineness, considering the imperfection of the looms employed for its manufacture.

SKETCH OF THE NORTHERN DIVISION OF THE ISTHMUS WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF VERA CRUZ.

This portion of the isthmus was formerly one of the most densely populated of the Mexican empire.

The topographical knowledge of this division, which is nearly covered with forests of almost impenetrable thickness, is very limited.

Don Tadeo Ortiz, comparing the Coatzacoalcos with the rivers Mississippi, Bravo, Panuco, Papaloapan (now Alvarado), Tabasco, Magdalena, and Orinoco, asserts that the waters of the Coatzacoalcos are always clear "even in the greatest floods," to which ought to be added the additional advantage of there being no logs of timber to obstruct its course, although it runs through a continuous forest, this circumstance being undoubtedly owing to the gentle current, and the tenacity of its banks.

The river next the Coatzacoalcos in importance is the Uspanapan, which Ortiz says "runs through a pleasant and picturesque region of temperate climate, and once thickly populated." This region, he thinks, is that which Cortes and Clavijero called Chimatlan and Quiexula.

"It is very probable," says Ortiz, "that this district which is now deserted, may afford a short and regular transit to the beautiful plains in the centre of the isthmus, as the conquerors penetrated through it into Upper Tabasco and Guatemala."

Besides the Uspanapan, the rivers Coahuapa, Coachapa, San Antonio, Tancochapa, and Zanapa, water also the plains lying on the right of the Coatzacoalcos: all of them are more or less navigable, and the latter discharges itself into the Atlantic, about forty kilometres, or about thirty miles, eastward of the mouth of the Coatzacoalcos.

The territory west of the Coatzacoalcos is also intersected by rivers, among which the Jaltepec and the San Juan are the largest. The former, before joining the Coatzacoalcos, flows through a country remarkable for its magnificent vegetation; and Ortiz is of opinion that a great portion of its course might be navigable for steamers. The latter falls into the Atlantic by Alvarado, and the Acayucans follow its course, when going to Vera Cruz, between which port and the Coatzacoalcos it is asserted that a canal communication might very easily be established.

In the district of Acayuca there are sixteen municipalities.

The town of Acayuca, situated at about 17 deg. 50 min. 30 sec. north latitude, and 5 min. 45 sec. east of the meridian of Juchitan, is the head of the district of the same name.

INHABITANTS.

The population of this district is estimated at about 21,000 inhabitants, divided into Europeans, Indians, and Mestizos.

The Europeans, who are few in number, and chiefly engaged in commerce, and the administration of public affairs.

The Indians constitute more than three-fourths of the whole population, and apply themselves to agriculture. These Indians are almost all Mexicans, and very ignorant and superstitious. Their manners and customs are somewhat loose; they are little inclined to work. They have not the disagreeable features of the Mijes and Soques, and are not to be compared to the Zapotecos; the excessive use of strong spirits, as well as the habit acquired from childhood of eating earth, deforms them, and imparts to them a sickly complexion.

Jaltipan is celebrated among the Indian villages of this territory, for having been the birth-place of Malinche (Dona Marina), who so greatly assisted Cortes. Signor Moro says,

“The women of this village are famed, and not undeservedly, as the handsomest throughout the district; but in common with the rest of their sex in the isthmus they cannot boast of very strict ideas of propriety. It is also said that the male population, instead of watching them with a jealous eye, carry their ideas of hospitality to a very peculiar length.

“A singular circumstance, deserving the attention of the ethnologist, is the existence of a race of dumb people, of which there are numerous families in Jaltipan. However strange this may appear it is nevertheless certain, and the *Rancho de los mudos* (settlement of the dumb), established a few years since near the lower part of the island of Tacamichapa, owes its designation to the fact that the individuals are all dumb who inhabit the three or four houses which form the settlement.”

The *Mestizos* are in general more rational and industrious than the Indians; but, like them, indulge in intemperate habits, and are much more turbulent. The number of *Mestizos* exceeds that of the Europeans.

CLIMATE.—The climate of this part is damp, but its temperature being generally low, it is said by Moro to be by no means unhealthy, as its position would lead one to suppose. The centigrade thermometer does not reach in these regions more than 30 deg.; the most prevalent diseases are intermittent fevers, but no instances have hitherto been known of the yellow fever, endemic in other countries.

“About the year 1830, three expeditions of Europeans were sent to the Coatza-coalcos for the purpose of colonisation. By a most unaccountable want of foresight, the unfortunate colonists were abandoned from the moment of their arrival, and were left without provisions, without shelter against the inclemencies of the season, and without assistance of any kind. Although every thing seemed calculated to favour the development and progress of an epidemic, no disease of this kind appeared among them, those who died perished more from misery and famine than from any other cause.

"By means of considerable felling of timber and the cultivation of the ground, the climate of this portion of the isthmus would no doubt be considerably improved, as it would remove the clouds of insects which at present render a residence here to a great degree uncomfortable."

MINERALS.—Moro relates that in a statistical account of Don José Maria Iglesias, mention is made of two mineral veins in the neighbourhood of the village of Joteapa, which were denounced in 1597 as being of silver, but the exact nature of which in reality is not known. It is stated in the same work that the calcareous rocks found in several parts of this territory might furnish excellent building materials; that in the settlement of *Los Quemados* there is beautiful alabaster; and near Jaltipan, gypsum of excellent quality. Lastly, it is stated that in the villages of Sayultepec and Moloacan there are fountains of petroleum; in the last-mentioned place and Almagres, springs of sulphureous water; and in the village of Chinameca, a fountain of mineral waters, without mentioning its qualities.

"I have been fortunate enough to be the first to find in the Mexican republic mines of coals of a superior quality, which I have already legally denounced, and the circumstance of their being situated in the neighbourhood of a great river, would render the conveyance of their produce very easy. I have seen no indication in the Isthmus of the existence of this valuable fossil."

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—All the plants of the southern division of the Isthmus, are also found in the northern. The luxuriance and majestic appearance of the forests of the Coatzacoalcos are beyond all description, and Don Tadeo Ortiz says, they exhibit "a truly monstrous vegetation, of which ocular inspection alone can give an adequate idea."

"These forests might furnish all the mahogany and other fine woods required in the United States and throughout Europe, at prices considerably less than those of other parts of America, where these woods are certainly neither so abundant nor of the gigantic size of three metres in width, and from fifteen to twenty in height."

Don José Maria Iglesias, speaking on the same subject, says,

"They abound (the forests) with the finest and most precious woods, but especially mahogany and cedar, which, without hyperbole, might well supply the whole of Europe."

Don Pedro de Garay says, in his memoir,

"There are seen on every side dye-woods and timber, which will in time acquire their true value, and will exceed, without doubt, the cost of any speculation."

On the high lands of almost all the rivers, and especially the Jaltepec and Uspanapan, the pine is found in the upper part of their course; below which the oak, and in the lower part, the most precious woods. Among those used in construction, the cedar, the sapota, the oak, the yellow-wood, the ebony, the *javicue*, *macayo*, and, above all, the *paqui* (iron-wood), which, from its extreme hardness, is also called *quiebra hacha* (break-axe).

Along the whole coast of the Atlantic, the tree yielding the pepper known by the name of myrtle (*myrtus pimenta*) is found growing luxuriantly.

In various parts the *siphonia cahuca* flourishes, from which caoutchouc, or India-rubber, is obtained. In many parts the cassia is very common. Fruit trees, the sapotas of various kinds, the lemon, the orange, and the wild chocolate tree, as well as two kinds of vine are abundant. The vanilla, the indigo plant, and the sarsaparilla, are also very plentiful.

ANIMALS.—The number of wild animals which infest these territories is incredible, particularly in the neighbourhood of the settlement of Teposapa. According to Senor Iglesias, they are of the same kind as in the southern division. Some are peculiar to the woods of the Coatzacoalcos, among which are some nocturnal species and the *stentor ursinus*.

Along the course of the Coatzacoalcos, its banks are alive with the so-called pheasants, the wild turkeys, the pigeons, partridges, ducks, and many other fowl, the flesh of which is wholesome and delicious food.

The multitude of parrots which inhabit the woods is astonishing. Toucans, including the ramphastos and the pteroglossus, and other birds, are numerous, some of them being remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, and others for their song.

The waters abound in excellent fish. In the lower part of the Coatzacoalcos the manatus, or manate, is frequently found. A peculiar kind of fresh water tortoise deposits on the banks of these rivers great quantities of eggs quite different from those of the sea tortoise, and very similar to those of the hen both in appearance and taste.

The coasts of the Atlantic next to the Isthmus are celebrated for abundance of tortoise, the fishery of which for shells gives employment to the inhabitants of Campeachy.

The guanas, the flesh of which is a delicious morsel to the natives, differ in the southern and northern divisions. In the former they inhabit the dry and barren spots, and are of a dusky-brown colour, whilst those of the Coatzacoalcos are of a light green, variegated in the males with red spots. Venomous reptiles are also abundant.

In the oak thickets of this district there are in vast quantities bags of wild silk, and wax and honey in abundance.

There is no manufacturing industry of consequence. Agriculture has made some progress of late years, and several of the inhabitants have applied themselves to the cultivation of cotton and tobacco.

The cotton grown appears to be of excellent quality, and also the tobacco, which is especially cultivated in the territory of Jaltipan. The grains most generally sown are maize, beans, and rice, but only in sufficient quantity for home consumption.

The soil is so fruitful that both Don Tadeo Ortiz and Don José Maria

Iglesias assert, that the efforts of the cultivator are in some places rewarded with five annual crops of maize.

Senor Ortiz, speaking with enthusiasm of this fertility, says—

“That which most particularly characterises this privileged region, however, is the singular fact that one single sowing of rice will yield successively two large crops without the slightest additional labour, as I had an opportunity of observing in the rancho de Gavilanes, situated in the strand between the rivers Coatzacoalcos and Toneladas.”

The sugar-cane, coffee, and cocoa, prosper, and are cultivated in the neighbourhood of all the settlements, although in very limited quantities. On the Coatzacoalcos, the only plantation of any importance is one of coffee and cocoa, which an European settler established a few years ago, near Hidalgotitlan on the banks of this river, opposite to this village.

The *iztle* is chiefly cultivated at Jaltipan, Soconusco, Tejistepec, Oteapa, Ishuatlan, and Moloacan. In 1831, Senor Iglesias numbered 1221 *iztle* plantations, the value of the produce of which, generally sent to Vera Cruz, he estimated at upwards of 100,000 francs.

In Mina-titlan there was then a brandy distillery, the most considerable in the district, but almost everywhere, and even in the ranchos or small settlements, this pernicious liquor is distilled by means of a still of baked earth.

As regards mechanical arts, it may be said that none exist in this district.

ALTITUDES by Trigonometrical Measurements.

NAMES OF PLACES.	Heights above the Level of the Sea.	NAMES OF PLACES.	Heights above the Level of the Sea.
	metres.		metres.
Summit of Daniguiati.....	274 5	Palo Blanco.....	371 0
Top of the cupola of the church of Juchitan	35 8	Estate of Tarifa (the place of the habita-	
Basement of the same church.....	18 0	tions, which is presumed to be the	
Monapostiac.....	111 0	summit tract of projected canal).....	208 5
Umalalang.....	218 0	Cerro de Piedra Parada.....	416 0
Daniguibixo.....	298 0	„ del Convento.....	446 0
Guiévichi.....	416 0	Paso Partida.....	466 0
East Peak of Cerro Prieto.....	460 0	Masahuila.....	615 0
Guiévixia.....	598 0	East summit of Massahua.....	696 0
Massahua (the middle summit).....	687 0	Guiéxila.....	1152 0
East summit of Huacamaya.....	775 0	Peak of the Cerro Atravesado.....	1529 0
Cerro de Laollaga.....	1243 0	The highest peak beyond it.....	2343 0

BAROMETRICAL Altitudes across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

NAMES OF PLACES.	Heights above the Level of the Sea.	NAMES OF PLACES.	Heights above the Level of the Sea.
	metres.		metres.
Umalalang.....	220	Source of the stream Monetza.....	196
Mitiachuaxtoco.....	250	Petapa (the town-house).....	204
Daniguibixo.....	296	The River Chicapa, at the Ultimo Rancho	208
Venta de Chicapa (house at the estate)..	24	Farm of Chivela.....	210
The River Chicapa, near the Rancho of		Source of the River Almoloya.....	225
La Puerta Vieja.....	83	Santo Domingo (the town-house).....	226
The River Coatzacoalcos, at the con-		El Barrio (the town-house).....	232
fluence of the Chimalapilla	119		

Towns and Villages in the Southern Division of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, with the Number of Inhabitants, from the Account furnished to Don Pedro de Garay by the Prefect of that District.

NAMES OF PLACES.	Inhabitants.	NAMES OF PLACES.	Inhabitants.
	number.		number.
Tehuantepec (town).....	8,934	Brought forward.....	20,290
Santa Catalina Mistequilla.....	247	San Francisco del mar.....	287
Tlacotepec.....	282	Zanatapec.....	336
Santiago Laollaga.....	152	Niltepec.....	626
Santo Domingo Chihuitan.....	532	Tapanatepec.....	321
San Gerónimo.....	805	San Miguel Chimalapa.....	318
Itzaltepec.....	1,546	Santa Maria Chimalapa.....	524
Espinal.....	504	Santa Maria Petapa.....	1,447
Juchitan.....	4,567	Santo Domingo Petapa.....	626
Huilopec.....	185	Barrio de la Soledad.....	999
San Mateo del mar.....	1,500	San Juan Guichicovi.....	5,000
Santa Maria del mar.....	148	San Gabriel Bocca de Monte.....	71
San Dionisio del mar.....	888		
Carried forward.....	20,290	Total.....	30,845

Note.—In the census of the above places, the number of inhabitants of the haciendas (estates) and ranchos (settlements) of their respective jurisdictions has been included.

PRINCIPAL Haciendas and Ranchos of the Southern Division of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and of the Number of Horned Cattle in each, from the most authentic Information which Don Pedro de Garay was able to obtain.

NAMES OF PLACES.	Horned Cattle.	NAMES OF PLACES.	Horned Cattle.
	number.		number.
Llano.....	250	Brought forward.....	7,335
Mal Paso.....	1000	Chicapa.. } Marquesanas.....	10,000
San Nicolas.....	300	Tarifa.... }	
Zuleta.....	1000	Chivela... }	
Jicaras.....	125	Trapiche de San Pablo.....	3,000
Salazar.....	300	Espinal.....	200
Nisabiti.....	60	Mesquital..	400
Cienaga.....	50	Los Cerrillos.....	700
Guigochuni.....	800	Paso Lagarto.....	80
Rio Grande.....	150	Huasuntlan.....	1,480
Trapiche de Santa Cruz.....	1100	Frailscas.....	100
Nanches.....	2000	Santa Bárbara.....	100
Potrero de Santo Domingo.....	200	Lachilana.....	120
Barrio de Petapa.....		Comitancillo.....	12,620
Guichilona.....		Juchitan.....	8,000
Carried forward.....	7355	San Francisco del mar.....	
		Total.....	44,135

Towns and Villages of the Northern Division of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, the Number of Inhabitants and Head of Cattle in each, according to the Statistics of the State of Vera Cruz, in 1831.

NAMES OF PLACES.	Inhabitants.	Oxen.	Horses.	Mules.
	number.	number.	number.	number.
San Martin Acayucum (villa).....	1,962	267	249	50
San Andres Sayultepeque.....	1,206			
Tejistepeque.....	2,132		88	
San Juan Oluta.....	659			
Santa Anna Soconusco.....	1,611		46	
Jaltipan.....	1,302	88	238	
Cosoliacaque.....	1,595	303	52	
San Pedro Joteapa.....	1,665	16	40	
Santiago Mecayapa.....	736		55	
Santa Maria Minsapam.....	773			
San Juan Chinameca.....	779	3679	906	45
Oteapam.....	857	147	33	
San Cristobal Ishuatlan.....	497	500	21	
Santiago Moloacan.....	624			
Minatitlan and neighbouring ranchos.....	400	?	?	?
Hidalgotitlan and its ranchos.....	300	?	?	?
Total.....	17,038	5000	1728	95

HACIENDAS and Rancherias in the Northern Division of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, with the Number of Inhabitants and Head of Cattle, from the Statistical Account of the State of Vera Cruz, in 1831.

NAMES OF PLACES.	Inhabitants.	Oxen.	Horses.	Mules.
	number.	number.	number.	number.
Rancheria de Michapa.....	325	230	160	
" del Encinal.....	382		35	
Rancherias { Coyote..... Guellepam.. Jalapa..... Cosaguilapa. Lechonal.... }	450			
Hacienda del Pedegral.....	20	100		
" del Calabozo.....	63			
" de Santa Catalina.....	210	1,000	10	2
" de San Juan Baptista Nopalapam.....	435	30,000	4000	180
" de Cuatotolapam.....	716	19,000	4000	285
Rancheria de la Malota.....	287			
" de Corral Viejo.....	81			
" del Paso de San Juan.....	204			
Hacienda de Solcuautila.....	123	5,000		
" de Santa Catalina de los Ortizes } " de San Felipe..... }	133	1,300	360	18
Rancheria de los Quemados.....	254			
Rancherias { Camahuacapa Correa..... Casas Viejas.. }	165	513	73	
Hacienda de los Almagres.....	49	2,200	200	8
" de San Antonio.....	9	400	90	4
" de San José Teposapa.....	7	2,400	10	2
Total.....	3973	62,143	8938	499

There is little doubt, from all that can be judged of the foregoing data, that a canal across this isthmus might be constructed, though with considerable difficulty in overcoming the natural obstacles which are to be removed. Opening so rich a country would assuredly pay those who had capital and skill to accomplish the undertaking. But the moral and political obstacles never will be overcome while the Spanish race possesses the country. Is there any other race whom the Deity has allowed to exist, except, probably, the Turks and Africans, who would have so thoroughly neglected a territory surpassed by no other on the surface of the globe?

PROJECTED CANAL ACROSS THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA.

From Chagres to the Bay of Panama, the insalubrity of the climate is urged as a fatal objection to the construction of a navigable canal. There are only two seasons—the dry season, or summer; and the rainy season, or winter. The first begins with the last part of December, and lasts till April; the second follows in April, and continues until December. In those parts which are most advantageously situated, as in the city of Panama and its neighbourhood, rain begins to fall in April, and May and June are rainy months. In July, August, September, and October, it rains incessantly. In November rain seldom falls, except during night; the weather usually clears up in December. Rain scarcely ever occurs during the months of January, February, and March. Lightning and thunder-storms are frequent during the rainy season. In the early part of the summer the thermometer rises to 90 deg., and even to 93 deg., and the weather is very sultry during the day. The land-winds at night are

cool, and blow from the mountains which occupy the middle of the isthmus. In the rainy season the thermometer stands at night at 82 deg., and in the day it rises to 87 deg. The city of Panama is considered an exception to the unhealthiness of the isthmus.

Luxuriant fertility is the characteristic of this part of Central America. The caoutchouc-tree, the *palo de vaca* (the milk-tree), vanilla, the *styrax officinalis* of Linnæus, and many valuable woods and plants are abundant. Rice and Indian corn are grown; the sugar-cane, coffee, and cacao, are cultivated for domestic consumption.

Of the live stock, the horned called are esteemed; the horses are small and hardy. Mules, goats, pigs, and poultry are reared. Wild deer, monkeys, the guana, rabbits, and hogs are eaten. The tiger-cat, puma, and bear are found. Wild turkeys, pheasants, pigeons, and ducks are met with. Fish is plentiful; hundreds of young sharks, the young shovel-nosed, are daily sold at Panama for food. Materials for building are abundant. Charcoal is exported.

Panama has some excellent deep harbours, and several good ones for small vessels.

PORTO BELLO (*Puerto Velo*), in 9 deg. 34 min. north latitude, and 77 deg. 54 min. west longitude, is a good port, surrounded by high mountains. The town stretches into the bay, forming scarcely more than one street. Formerly it was a populous trading place. From the unhealthiness of the climate, it has been nearly abandoned by the few inhabitants, who have survived its vomito and fevers.

LIMONES' BAY, or Puerto de Naos (Navy Bay), west of Porto Bello, affords good anchorage. The Rio Chagres approaches within two and a half miles of bay, and as the intervening tract is quite level a canal has been suggested, as easily practicable.

CHAGRES, at the mouth of the Rio Chagres, has a harbour for vessels drawing no more than ten to twelve feet water. A bar or ledge of rocks extends across its entrance. It is said to be very unhealthy. From this harbour, which has a village of miserable houses, some trade is carried on across the shores to and from Panama. The distance is travelled over in about eighteen hours.

PANAMA, in 8 deg. 58 min. N. lat., and 79 deg. 30 min. W. lat., is built on a neck and point of land which extends into the bay. It is well built of stone, the houses have patios or courts. It has a cathedral, several convents, a college, and some other public buildings. The harbour is protected by a number of islands, and there is good anchorage within them. The trade consists in the exportation of the produce of the country to Lima and Guayaquil; and by way of Jamaica gold and silver is frequently sent from Panama to Europe. The population,

which consists almost entirely of a mixed race, is estimated at nearly 200,000. There is no town of any importance in the interior: east of Porto Bello and Panama, the country is very thinly inhabited. Cruces, on the Chagres, with about 2000 inhabitants, who live in miserable huts, is the entrepôt where goods are put on board of boats to be brought down to Chagres: from Panama to Cruces they are conveyed on mules. Farther west is Chorera, on the river of that name, which it is said contains about 4000 inhabitants, and carries on some trade; and Nata Los Santos, each inhabited by about 4000 persons, and situated on the best-cultivated part of the Isthmus of Panama. Steam packets are now established between Panama, and several ports south, to those of Chili.

On the Pacific the harbour of Punta de Arenas is situated on the eastern shores of the Gulf of Nicoya, and has good anchorage for vessels drawing no more than nine or ten feet of water: it is the harbour of San José, the present capital of Costa Rica, which is about seventy-three miles distant, and exports, through Punta de Arenas, sugar, timber, and some maize to Peru and Chile.

M. Michel Chevalier, while examining the circumstances which ought to be kept in view in selecting the most appropriate place for an oceanic communication, observes, that one of the most important is its salubrity. He says:

"However great might be the saving of time effected by steering through the Isthmus, it would always be shunned by vessels if it were to prove a charnel-house."

Signor Moro says:

"The climate of the Isthmus of Panama is acknowledged to be dangerous, a fact confirmed by the accounts of Humboldt and other writers. The fear of its unhealthiness was one of the causes that prevented the assembling of Congress there, after the emancipation of the states of Spanish America had been convened, in order to establish a system of general policy suited to the interests of the American nations. The same fear prevented the engineers, Lloyd and Falmarc, remaining in the Isthmus a sufficient time to complete the labours of the exploration, which they undertook in 1827 and 1828, by order of General Bolivar, and in a succeeding expedition Lloyd lost his life. To this grievous cause is likewise to be ascribed the paucity of population and the want of the necessary means of existence in that Isthmus, and as the climate does not permit the increase of the former, there is no possibility of augmenting the latter.

"The Isthmus of Panama is again being explored, but it has been lately estimated that even should the work be at all practicable, its accomplishment would require the united efforts of the principal nations of the world, and an expenditure of at least 200,000,000 francs."

According to the surveys of M. Garella, by order of the French government, a canal through the Isthmus of Panama presents great difficulties. The length of the proposed canal through Panama would be only about thirty miles, and the utmost height to be attained, according to M. Garella, only 177 feet; but it is asserted that there is no means of boring water to the summit level. This is certainly, if true, a great obstacle. M. Garella proposes to make a tunnel, the cost of which would be 2,000,000*l.* sterling. Other authorities, especially Mr. Wheelwright, assert that the country from Chagres to the Pacific is nearly level;

and we are not disposed to condemn the project of a canal over this Isthmus until we have far more complete surveys than we yet possess.

It is certain that since Mr. Wheelwright and the British company have established steamboats between Panama and various ports of the Pacific, that the greatest advantages to trade and commerce have been the result. In connexion with the establishment of these steamboats, we have been furnished with calculations and statements, which we have condensed as follows :

TABLE of Distances and Hours steaming from Panama to the following Ports, viz. :

P O R T S.	Miles.	Hours.	P O R T S.	Miles.	Hours.
	No.	No.		No.	No.
From Panama to the Gulf of Nicoya.....	435	48	From Panama to San Francisco { via Mazat-		
" " the Gulf of Papagayo.....	590	65.30	lan.....	3456	384
" " Realejo.....	680	75.30	direct....	3200	355.30
" " Sonsonate.....	847	94	" " Port Bodega { via Mazat-		
" " Yztapa.....	937	104	lan.....	3514	390.30
" " Socunusco.....	1095	121.30	direct.....	3258	362
" " Tehuantepec.....	1210	134.30	" " { Hudson Bay		
" " Acapulco.....	1495	166	Company's		
" " Navidad.....	1810	201	Settlement		
" " San Blas.....	1962	218	at Colombia		
" " Mazatlan.....	2091	232	River.....		
" " Guaymas.....	2448	272	" " Woahoo, Sandwich Islands	4620	513
" " Rio Gila, where it joins			" " St. Peter and St. Paul,		
the Colorado.....	2793	310	Kamschatka, via Woahoo	7380	820
" " San Diego { via Mazatlan.	3016	335	" " Jedo, in Japan, via Wo-		
direct from			hoo.....	7950	883
Panama.....	2760	306.30	" " Canton, via Woahoo.....	9540	1060
" " Monterey { via Mazatlan..	3376	375			
direct.....	3120	346.30			

From the discovery of the Pacific down to the independence of the Spanish American provinces in 1824, Panama was the highway between Spain and her possessions, along the west coast of America. Vasco Nunes de Balbao, in 1513, crossed the Isthmus with troops, from Santa Maria del Darien to the Gulf of San Miguel. In 1524, the city of Panama had a governor. It became the seat of a royal " Audiencia," and until the discontinuance of the Spanish galleons, it was the depôt of the merchandise sent from Spain for the southern coast of New Granada and Peru and the northern ports of Central America. During the war of independence in Peru, troops from Spain were sent up the Chagres to Panama, and from thence by transports to Peru. The buccaneers, as early as the reign of Queen Elizabeth, frequently passed over this route; and until the trade with the Pacific, by Cape Horn, was opened by British ships, the Spanish colonists on the Pacific coasts were clandestinely supplied through Jamaica, by way of Panama.

The canoes on the Chagres are described as large enough to carry eighty bales of merchandise.

With respect to the length of voyage and distance round Cape Horn, and by way of transit through the isthmus, we have some curious statements. It is said that a fast-sailing schooner, of the class known under the designation of "*Clipper*," took thirty-two days in sailing from Panama to San Blas, a voyage which, by a steamer proceeding direct, might be performed in eight or nine days. The extreme difficulty of sailing to the westward from Panama Bay, arises from

calms, squalls from all directions, and the struggle of opposing winds and currents. The same "clipper," sailing often at eleven and eleven-and-a-half knots per hour, took twelve days on her voyage from Valparaiso, in sailing from the equator to Panama.

If a canal be impracticable across the short distance over the Isthmus of Panama, a railroad would undoubtedly be a work of neither great difficulty nor expense, even according to Mr. Garella's report. We fear, however, that the great obstacle will be found in the moral and political difficulties.

One writer says—

"If ever it should be ceded to another power, the nation holding it will acquire an immense influence and power over the communication of the world (supposing the above improvements in steam), with a territory well-wooded, well-watered, fertile in the extreme, rich in gold and pearl fisheries, capable of supporting a numerous population, and not, by any means, *generally* unhealthy; while the inhabitants will acquire that wealth and prosperity which the advantages of their situation secure to them."

The passages in merchant vessels to and from England direct by Cape Horn, average—

	Days.
For Valparaiso.....	100
" Lima.....	110
" Guayaquil.....	120

The passage by Panama may be performed by steam—

To Valparaiso.....	48
" Lima.....	37
" Guayaquil.....	32
From Valparaiso to Lima.....	11
" Lima to Payta or Guayaquil.....	5
" Payta to Panama.....	10
Across the Isthmus.....	1
Thence to England.....	21
Making in the whole.....	48
To Lima by Cape Horn.....	110
" " Panama.....	37
Difference of time in favour of the route by Panama.....	73

The transit from Panama to Chagres is easy, being only twenty-one miles by land, and the remainder by a river, safe and navigable for boats and canoes. This was the route by which the several towns and provinces on the Pacific Ocean made their communications with Europe, before the separation of the Colonies from Spain; but the frequent revolutions which have taken place in South America, and the consequent poverty and want of enterprise in the Spanish population, have disturbed periodical communications between these places.

COMPARATIVE Table of Distances.

PLACES.	By Cape of Good Hope.	By Cape Horn.	By Panama Canal.
FROM FALMOUTH.	miles.	miles.	miles.
Singapore.....	14,420	26,616	16,578
Port Jackson.....	14,200	13,830	13,828
Canton.....	13,435	23,156	11,612
Valparaiso.....	25,950	9,400	8,060
Lima.....	26,200	10,936	7,598

CANAL ROUTE BY THE ISTHMUS OF NICARAGUA.

Surveys and projects have been made, in order to construct a navigable canal from the harbour of San Juan, already described, to the lakes of Nicaragua and Managua, and thence by a short cut to the Pacific. If England, France, and the United States, were to enter into a contract with any *de facto* government of the country, whatever government succeeded would be then compelled to observe the stipulations of such treaty. Until then we can hold out no security whatever for executing a work which would be immediately undertaken by the capitalists of Europe and America. If there were no moral, social, or political obstacles, there is no doubt that the natural obstructions might, with comparatively little difficulty, be overcome. Mr. Baily, an English engineer, surveyed the route in 1837-8; a survey of the river was made by Mr. Lawrence, of her Majesty's ship *Thunderer*, in 1840, and a report was also made by a Captain A. G., quoted in an able work on the subject, privately printed, by Prince Napoleon Louis Bonaparte, whom the government of Nicaragua, in December, 1845, offered to place at the head of the executive direction of an undertaking to construct the projected canal.

Mr. Stephens did not visit the River San Juan, but he did visit both the lakes of Nicaragua and Leon, or Managua, and the port of Realejo. He describes the Lake of Leon, or Managua, as not so vast or broad as the Lake of Nicaragua, but that it is a noble sheet of water, and in full view of the volcano of Momotombo. The shore presented the animated spectacle of women filling their water-jars, men bathing, horses and mules drinking, and in one place was a range of fishermen's huts; on the edge of the water stakes were set up in a triangular form, and women, with small hand-nets, were catching fish, which they threw into hollow places, dug, or rather scraped, in the sand. The fish were called sardinitos, and at the door of the huts the men were building fires to cook them. "The beauty of this scene was enhanced by the reflection that it underwent no change. Here was perpetual summer; no winter ever came to drive the inhabitants shivering to their fires; but still it may be questioned whether, with the same scenery and climate, wants few and easily supplied, luxuriating in the open air, and by the side of this lovely lake, even the descendants of the Anglo-Saxon race would not lose their energy and industry."

This lake empties itself into the Lake of Nicaragua by means of the River Tipitapa, a communication between the two seas has been suggested, by means of a canal from it to the Pacific, at the port of Realejo.* The ground is perfectly

* The harbour of Realejo, on the Pacific, was surveyed by Captain Sir Edward Belcher in 1838. Of this harbour he says—

"Cardon, at the mouth of the port of Realejo, is situated in 12 deg. 28 min. north, and about 87 deg. 12 min. west. It has two entrances, both of which are safe, under proper precaution, in all weather. The depth varies from two to seven fathoms, and good and safe anchorage extends for several miles; the rise and fall of tide is eleven feet, full and change three hours six minutes. Docks or slips, therefore, may easily be constructed, and timber is readily to be procured of any dimensions; wood, water, and immediate necessities and luxuries, are plentiful and cheap. The

level, and the port is perhaps the best in Spanish America; but the distance is sixty miles, and there are other difficulties which seemed to him insuperable.

There is not a single stream on the contemplated line of canal from this lake to the Pacific, and it would be necessary for this lake to furnish the whole supply of water for communication with both oceans.

Of the harbour of Realejo, Mr. Stephens observes—

"Rested and refreshed I walked down to the shore. Our encampment was about the centre of the harbour, which was the finest I saw in the Pacific. It is not large, but beautifully protected, being almost in the form of the letter U. The arms are high and parallel, running nearly north and south, and terminating in high perpendicular bluffs. As I afterwards learned from Mr. Baily, the water is deep, and under either bluff, according to the wind, vessels of the largest class can ride with perfect safety. Supposing this to be correct, there is but one objection to this harbour, which I derive from Captain D'Yriaste, with whom I made the voyage from Zonzonate to Caldera. He has been nine years navigating the coast of the Pacific, from Peru to the Gulf of California, and has made valuable notes, which he intends publishing in France, and he told me that during the summer months, from November to May, the strong north winds which sweep over the Lake of Nicaragua, pass with such violence through the Gulf of Papajayo, that during the prevalence of these winds it is almost impossible for a vessel to enter the port of San Juan. Whether this is true to the extent that Captain Yriaste supposes, and if true, how far steam-tugs would answer to bring vessels in against such a wind, is for others to determine. But at the moment there seemed more palpable difficulties.

"The harbour was perfectly desolate, for years not a vessel had entered it; primeval trees grew around it, for miles there was not a habitation; I walked the shore alone. Since Mr. Baily left, not a person had visited it; and probably the only thing that keeps it alive, even in memory, is the theorising of scientific men, or the occasional visit of some Nicaragua fisherman, who, too lazy to work, seeks his food in the sea. It seemed preposterous to consider it the focus of a great commercial enterprise; to imagine that a city was to rise up out of the forest, the desolate harbour to be filled with ships, and become a great portal for the thoroughfare of natives. But the scene was magnificent. The sun was setting, and the high western headland threw a deep shade over the water. It was, perhaps, the last time in my life that I should see the Pacific, and in spite of fever and ague tendencies, I bathed once more in the great ocean.

"At seven o'clock we started, recrossed the stream, at which we had procured water, and returned to the first station of Mr. Baily. It was on the river San Juan, a mile and a half from the sea. The river here had sufficient depth of water for large vessels, and from this point Mr. Baily commenced his survey to the Lake of Nicaragua.

"My guide cleared a path for me with his machete; and working our way across the plain, we entered a valley, which ran in a great ravine called Quebrada Grande, between the mountain ranges of Zebadea and El Platina.

"Up to this place manifestly there could be no difficulty in cutting a canal, beyond the line of survey follows the small stream of El Cacao for another league, when it crossed the mountain, but there was such a rank growth of young trees, that it was impossible to continue without sending men forward to clear the way. We therefore left the line of the canal, and crossing the valley to the right, reached the foot of the mountain over which the road to Nicaragua passes.

"The side of the mountain was very steep, and besides large trees, was full of brambles, thorn bushes, and licks. I was obliged to dismount and lead my macko; the dark skin of my guide glistened with perspiration, and it was almost a climb till we reached the top.

"Coming out into the road the change was beautiful. It was about ten feet wide, straight, and shaded by the noblest trees in the Nicaragua forests. In an hour we reached the bocca of the mountain, where Nicolas was waiting with the mules under the

village of Realejo is about nine miles from the sea, and its population is about 1000 souls. The principal occupation of the working males is on the water, loading and unloading vessels. It has a custom-house and officers under a collector, comptroller, and captain of the port."—*Voyage round the World*, vol. ii., p. 307.

shade of a large tree, which threw its branches fifty feet from its trunk, and seemed reared by a beneficent hand for the shelter of a weary traveller. Soon we reached another station of Mr. Baily. Looking back I saw the two great mountain ranges, standing like giant portals, and could but think what a magnificent spectacle it would be to see a ship with all its spars and rigging, cross the plain, pass through the great door, and move on to the Pacific. Beyond, the whole plain was on fire; the long grass, scorched by the summer's sun, crackled, flashed, and burned like powder. The road was a sheet of flame, and when the fire had passed the earth was black and hot.

"Off from the road, on the edge of the woods, and near the River Las Lakas, was another station of Mr. Baily. From that place the line runs direct over a plain till it strikes the same river near the Lake of Nicaragua. I attempted to follow the lines again, but was prevented by the growth of underwood.

"Beautiful as the whole country had been, I found nothing equal to the two hours before entering Nicaragua. The fields were covered with high grass, studded with noble trees, and bordered at a distance by a dark forest, while in front, high and towering, of a conical form, rose the beautiful volcano of the island. Herds of cattle gave it a home-like appearance.

"The whole of the next morning I devoted to making inquiries on the subject of the canal route. More is known of it in the United States than at Nicaragua. I did not find one man who had been to the port of San Juan, or even who knew Mr. Baily's terminating point on the Lake of Nicaragua. I was obliged to send for my old guide, and after a noonday dinner started for the lake. The town consisted of a large collection of straggling houses, without a single object of interest. Though the richest state in the confederacy in natural gifts, the population is the most miserable.

"Before reaching the lake we heard the waves breaking upon the shore like the waves of the sea, and when we emerged from the woods the view before us was grand. On one side no land was visible; a strong north-wind was sweeping over the lake, and its surface was violently agitated; the waves rolled and broke upon the shore with solemn majesty; and opposite, in the centre of the lake, were the islands of Isola and Madeira, with giant volcanoes rising as if to scale the heavens. The great volcano of Omotopeque reminded me of Mount Etna, rising like the pride of Sicily from the water's edge, a smooth, unbroken cone, to the height of nearly 6000 feet.

"Mr. Baily is a half-pay officer in the British navy. Two years before he was employed by the government of Central America to make a survey of this canal route, and he had completed all except the survey of an unimportant part of the River San Juan, when the revolution broke out. The states declared their independence of the general government, and disclaimed all liability for its debts. Mr. Baily had given his time and labour, and when I saw him had sent his son to make a last appeal to the shadow of the federal government; but before he reached the capital this government was utterly annihilated, and Mr. Baily remains with no reward for his arduous services but the satisfaction of having been a pioneer in a noble work. On my arrival at Grenada he laid before me all his maps and drawings, with liberty to make what use of them I pleased."

The River San Juan, according to Mr. Baily, is, with its windings, ninety English miles long. Mr. G. Lawrance, mate and assistant-surveyor of her majesty's surveying vessel *Thunderer* makes it 104 miles. The Lake of Nicaragua is ninety geographical miles long; the river of Tipitapa, joining the Lake of Nicaragua to that of Leon, is twenty miles; the Lake of Leon, or Managua, is thirty-five miles; and the isthmus between the Lake of Leon, and the port of Realejo, is twenty-nine miles across; total length of projected canal 278 miles, or, according to Mr. Baily, 264 miles: eighty-two miles of which require deepening, or locks, and other canal work.

Mr. Baily calculates the Lake of Nicaragua to be 128 feet three inches above the level of the Pacific Ocean, at low water and full moon.

The Lake of Managua is twenty-eight feet eight inches above the level of that of Nicaragua.

The most elevated summit to be traversed, between the Lake Managua and Realejo, is fifty-five feet six inches above the level of the lake. Total height of the summit level, 212 feet five inches.

M. Garella makes the difference of level between high water in the Pacific and low water in the Atlantic nineteen feet and a half, which will make the summit level above the Pacific 231 feet eleven inches.

"THE RIVER SAN JUAN," says Mr. Baily, "flows from the Lake of Nicaragua at its south-eastern extremity, at the place where formerly stood the fort of St. Charles, now completely destroyed. Here is the only discharge for the waters of both the lakes. The whole length of the river, pursuing all its windings from St. Charles down to the port of San Juan del Norte, is ninety miles (others say 104 miles); it forms a magnificent stream, somewhat irregular in its breadth, which varies from 100 to 200 yards, studded with small islands, forming for the most part a channel on each side of them. The depth of the water varies from one-and-a-half to seven, eight, and nine fathoms. In the mid-stream the depth is generally from three to five fathoms, but during the rainy season, namely, from May to November, the depth is considerably increased; for, according to observations made at the ruined fort near Grenada, in calm weather, in October, 1838, when the rainy season had just terminated, and again in May, 1839, before the rains had commenced, when the lake was at the lowest, the difference of height between these extremes was found to be six feet six inches. In November, 1839, at which time the rains had ceased, the same observations were made, and the result was that the waters had risen fourteen inches less than in the previous year.

"The banks of the river, particularly the right, are fringed with wood of all sizes and descriptions, with a dense undergrowth, forming, altogether, a forest nearly impenetrable; consequently there are no inhabitants, nor is the land cultivated, although of prodigious fertility. The immediate shores are undulating, being in some parts not more than a few feet, and in others between twenty and thirty feet above the surface of the water.

"Two large rivers, the San Carlos and Sarapiquí, besides many small streams, discharge into the San Juan."

Captain A. G——, quoted by Prince Napoleon Louis, says, there are large rivers, which have their source in the mountains bordering the country of the Mosquitos, which discharge from the left bank into the San Juan.

"From the gentle declivity of the River San Juan, the current is not strong, being at the rate of a mile or a mile-and-a-half per hour, except in the times of freshes, when it is accelerated variously, according to circumstances. It is navigated all the year round by boats of eight or ten tons' burden, called *bongos*, and which are generally manned by ten or twelve men, besides the patron. They can carry about 100 *seroons* of indigo, or 500 hides, or a proportionate quantity of Brazilian timber. The obstacles which now prevent the advantageous navigation of the River San Juan are,—first, the rapids; secondly, the drainage occasioned by its influx into another river, called the Colorado, seventeen miles above the port of San Juan; and lastly, the labyrinths of small islands, which extend ten or twelve miles from the opening of the River Colorado to the mouth of the River San Juan. It is generally believed that at some former epoch, the Spaniards purposely enlarged the opening of this branch with the intent of exhausting the main river, at that part, to such an extent as to render the river impracticable to navigation, hoping thereby to protect the town of Grenada from external attacks. In the present advanced stage of the science of civil engineering, this obstacle would be easily surmounted. The rapids are four in number; called *del Toro del Castillo Viejo*, *de las Balas*, and *de Machuca*, all compromised within an extent of ten miles, but there is clear water-way from one to the other, having good depth of from

three to six fathoms; the longest of these rapids is not more than one mile. The rocks by which they are occasioned are all placed transversely to the current, leaving a narrow channel on each side, and showing their ragged and sharpened edges above the surface of the water during the dry season.

"The breadth of the river from this point is between 100 and 120 yards; the current rushes with violence, and dashes with great force against and between the projecting points. The *bongos*, however, make the passage without hazard, and we have never heard of the occurrence of an accident.

"The Colorado diverges from the San Juan in 10 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and after running in a south-westerly direction, falls into the sea in 10 deg. 46 min., forming a dangerous bar. This river abstracts from the main stream a considerable quantity of water, the opening from the San Juan being 1200 feet wide, and having in the deepest part nine feet of water at the lowest state of the river. From measurements of this section, carefully taken at two different periods, in May when at the minimum, and in July when much increased by freshes, it appears from calculation, that at the first period the loss of water from the river was 28,178 cubic yards per minute, and at the latter observation, as much as 85,840 cubic yards. The main current being thus suddenly weakened, the motion of the water becomes sluggish, and the natural effect is, that deposits of sand and mud are formed, which gradually augment where the movement of the water is feeble; trunks of trees and other floating bodies grounding on these, small islets are formed by successive aggregations, which soon become covered with rank grass, reeds, and other herbaceous plants of rapid growth; a great number of these mounds have been thus raised, and the progress of formation is continually going on. The usual methods of clearing the beds of rivers could here be applied with facility and good effect, as the accumulations are nothing more than silt and sand with occasional logs buried underneath. A dam across the Colorado branch, constructed on such of the well-known plans as might be judged the most efficient, would be indispensable. Then the reformed body of water, aided, if necessary, by the resources of art, would, by the momentum of its increased velocity, soon clear a channel to the depth that should be deemed requisite: other parts of the river where such operations might be wanted, could be improved by nearly similar methods, as the bottom is everywhere composed of mud and sand, except about the rapids, where it is of rock or loose stones.

THE LAKE OF NICARAGUA OR GRENADA.—Mr. Baily says,

"The Lake of Grenada is ninety geographical miles long, its greatest breadth is forty, and the mean twenty miles; the depth of water is variable, being in some places close to the shore, and in others half a mile from it, two fathoms, increasing gradually to eight, ten, twelve, and fifteen fathoms, the bottom usually mud. [Mr. A. G—sounded in the middle of the lake forty-five fathoms.] This basin is the receptacle of the waters from a tract of country six to ten leagues in breadth on each side of it, thrown in by numerous streams and rivers, none of them navigable except the river Frio, having its source far away in the mountains of Costa Rica, which discharges into the lake a large quantity of water near the spot where the river San Juan flows out of it. The embouchure is 200 yards wide, and nearly two fathoms deep. There are several islands and groups of islets in different parts of the lake, but none of them embarrass the navigation, nor is this anywhere incommoded by shoals or banks, other than the shallow water in shore; and even this is but very trifling, or rather it is no impediment at all to the craft at present in use, the practice being to keep the shore close aboard for the purpose of choosing convenient stopping-places at the close of day, as they scarcely ever continue their voyage during the night.

"The district extending to the eastern coast is called Chontales. Its soil, although covered with trees, presents in different places excellent pasturage, divided into farms, on which the breeding of cattle is chiefly pursued.

"The largest islands on the lake are Omotepe, Madera, and Zapatera. Taken together, the first two of these islands are twelve miles long. Zapatera is almost triangular, and five miles long. Sanate, Salentinane, and Zapote, are smaller, and uninhabited, but some of them, and the last in particular, are capable of cultivation.

"Near the town of Grenada there is the best anchorage for ships of the largest dimensions."

THE RIVER TIPITAPA.—Mr. Baily says,

"The Lake of Nicaragua is connected with that of Leon by means of the river Panaloya (or Tipitapa), navigable for the boats employed in that country for twelve miles, as far as the place called Pasquiel, where the inhabitants go to cut and bring away Brazilian timber. The four miles which remain between that place and the Lake of Leon, are not navigable by any kind of boat, whatever may be its construction, because, beyond Pasquiel, the channel is obstructed by a vein of rocks, which, when the river is swollen, are covered with water; but in the dry season, the water sinks so low that it can only escape through gradually diminishing fissures in the rocks. At a distance of a mile beyond this first vein of rocks, we find another more solid, which, crossing the river at right angles, forms a cascade of thirteen feet descent.

"The river Tipitapa, which discharges itself into the Lake of Nicaragua, is the only outlet for the Lake Leon. The lands bordering this river are somewhat low, but fertile, having excellent pasturage; as at Chontales, they are divided into grazing and breeding farms. All this country, covered with Brazilian timber, is scantily inhabited. The only village is that of Tipitapa, situated near the above-mentioned waterfall. It contains a small church, and about 100 cottages. The river is crossed by a wooden bridge."

Captain A. G—— is of opinion, that for the first twelve miles, it would only be necessary to have a lock to increase the depth of the river. Mr. Lawrance says, that the navigable part of the river has a depth of from three to eighteen feet, and that the fall at Pasquiel is thirteen feet high. He estimates the length of the river at twenty miles. According to Mr. Stephens, the whole fall of the river Tipitapa, which amounts to twenty-eight feet, is comprised within the first six miles from the Lake Leon. Mr. Rouhaud, who has assisted in the topographical discoveries in that country, told M. Michel Chevalier that the fall of twenty-eight feet was distributed as follows, viz., eighteen feet are precipitated by a cascade at Tipitapa, and the remaining ten feet and a half descend from Tipitapa to Nicaragua.

THE LAKE OF LEON OR MANAGUA.—The Lake of Leon is from thirty-two to thirty-five miles long, and sixteen miles at its greatest width. It receives from the circumjacent lands, chiefly from the eastern coast, a number of small streams. According to Mr. Lawrance, it is not so deep as that of Nicaragua; but, according to Captain A. G——, it is still deeper.

THE ISTHMUS BETWEEN THE LAKE LEON AND REALEJO.—M. Michel Chevalier says, that the account of the celebrated navigator Dampier, who had been at war in those regions, induced a belief that throughout the different routes from the Lake Leon to Realejo, and from the Lake of Nicaragua to the Gulf of Papagayo or to that of Nicaya, the land consists for the most part of level plains, and that between the lake of Leon and the coast of Realejo, the soil is quite flat. Mr. Rouhaud has described in the same terms the country between the north-western part of the Lake of Leon, and the port of Realejo, and of the tract of land which extends between the same point and the port of Tamarindo. He thinks nineteen feet or twenty-two feet to be the height of the bank above the level of

the water. "Then comes," says he, "a small zone on a very slight and yet sensible declivity, by which we gently descend to the Pacific Ocean."

M. Michel Chevalier says (page 96),

"I see, however, in the description of Central America and Mexico, published in Boston in 1833, that the highest land between the Lake of Leon and the Pacific Ocean descends to be only fifty-one feet above the level of the lake. From the same lake to the River Tosta is but eleven miles; and that river not more than three feet above the level of the lake, at the point where a junction might be effected. If fully established, this statement would be of great importance, for we can avoid any extraordinary cutting, and *à fortiori* a tunnel. A cutting of seventy-two feet maximum is nothing unusual in the operations of the engineers of the *ponts* and *chaussées*. By employing improved machinery and implements, which are now at the disposal of the engineer, we can execute deep cuttings at little expense, in the absence of rocky grounds. In the canal from Arles to Bouc, for instance, the table-land of the Lègue has been cut through to the extent of 2289 yards, the extreme depth being from forty-three to fifty-four yards. The expense has been less than 160,000*l.*, notwithstanding its having been executed on the old system. Now-a-days, works of this nature are executed with powerful engines; manual labour is confined to mere digging and loading; and upon the great northern railroad of France, a machine has been successfully and economically employed even for this last purpose."

Sir Edward Belcher, R. N., who explored part of the country in 1838, says—

"At the term—day, we pitched our observatory near the sea-margin, at the base of the volcano of Consequina, or Quisiguina, and having completed the requisite observations, started with the *Starling* and boats to explore the Estero Real, which I had been given to understand was navigable for *sixty miles*; in which case, from what I had seen of its course on my visit to the Viejo, it must nearly communicate with the Lake of Managua.

"After considerable labour, we succeeded in carrying the *Starling* thirty miles from its mouth, and could easily have gone further, had the wind permitted, but the prevailing strong winds rendered the toil of towing too heavy.

"We ascended a small hill about a mile below our extreme position, from which angles were taken to all the commanding peaks. From that survey, added to what I remarked from the summit of the Viejo, I am satisfied that the stream could have been followed many miles higher; and I have not the slightest doubt that it is fed very near to the Lake of Managua. I saw the mountains beyond the lake on its eastern side, and no land higher than the intervening trees occurred. This, therefore, would be the most advantageous line for a canal, which, by *entire lake navigation*, might be connected with the interior of the states of San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and extended to the Atlantic. Thirty navigable miles for vessels drawing ten feet, we can vouch for, and the natives and residents assert sixty more. But steamers will be absolutely necessary to tow against the prevalent breezes."—*Voyage Round the World*, Vol. I., pp. 236.

He adds in the Appendix, that—

"In the port of Realejo there is a river, the Donna Paula, which takes a course towards Leon, and is navigable within three leagues of that city. It has been suggested to carry a railroad from Leon to the Lake of Managua. As to any canal into the Pacific, unless behind Monotombo, Telica, and Viejo range, into the Estero Real, I see little feasibility in the scheme."

Mr. Baily tells us,

"In executing so stupendous an undertaking, salubrity of climate, and the means of feeding abundantly and economically so large a body of workmen as would be collected, are subjects that cannot be passed over without notice. With regard to the first, the writer can aver that during four months that he was occupied between the Pacific and the Lake of Grenada, with a party of forty individuals, there was not a man pre-

vented by sickness from performing his daily labour, although continually sleeping at night in the open air. On the lake and in the river San Juan, with a large party, the men maintained their health well, although exposed to frequent rains in the latter. But when at the port (del Norte), or near to it, sickness got among them, which was mainly attributable to the use or rather abuse of ardent spirits, and other excesses, so frequently indulged in at such places. This change, however, is not assignable solely to indulgence in excesses, because San Juan is exposed to all the dangerous influences of climate and temperature peculiar to the Mosquito Shore, and all the coast from Cape Gracios à Dios to Carthagena and beyond it.

"The population of the state of Nicaragua may be said not to extend, south only, much beyond the environs of the town of Nicaragua, so that the line of survey approaching it in no part nearer than four leagues, passed over a comparative wilderness, and consequently all provisions were supplied from that place; these are always to be had in abundance, and, should circumstances require it, they could be drawn from other parts of the state to almost any extent. The principal articles of consumption are meat (beef), maize, frijoles, rice, plantains, and fruits, which can be furnished at moderate prices; as for example—meat at three and a half, four, or four and a half reals the arroba of twenty-five pounds (the *real* is equal to sixpence of English money); maize, varying according to seasons, six, eight, or ten, seldom twelve reals per fanega, which weighs about 260 pounds; frijoles and rice in similar proportions; plantains, which are universally used, especially by the labouring classes, are so plentiful that a mule load of them (which is from two to three quintals), can be had throughout the year for two or two and a half reals; so that if a large number of workmen were to be collected in this direction, there would be found no difficulty in supplying them with all the ordinary necessities of life.

"The price paid for labour during the survey amounted to half a real a-day; but this was higher than what is usually given for general field-work, in consideration of the men being taken to a distance from their families for an indefinite time. For work such as that in question, good native artisans would be scarce, but there would be no want of labouring hands, for the certainty and regularity of their pay would attract men, not only from all parts of this, but from the adjoining states of Costa Rica, Honduras, and Salvador also, while a judicious system of equitable regulations would insure their docility and submissiveness. The barbarism that has been attributed to this population in the writings before alluded to, needs no other refutation than saying that the imputation is unfounded; nor is it, nor can it be a supposable fact that the peasantry of the one country should differ very much from that of the other adjoining to it, the same language, habits, and customs being common to both.

"We now come to the communication with the Atlantic by means of the Lake of Nicaragua and the River San Juan. The lake is ninety-five miles long; in its broadest part about thirty, and averages, according to Mr. Baily's soundings, fifteen fathoms of water. The length of the river, by measurement, with all its windings, from the mouth of the lake to the sea, is seventy-nine miles. There are no cataracts or falls; all the obstructions are from rapids, and it is at all times navigable, both up and down, for piraguas drawing from three to four feet of water.

"From the lake to the River of Los Savalos, about eighteen miles, the depth is from two to four fathoms. Here commence the rapids of Toros, which extend one mile, with water from one and a half to two fathoms. The river is then clear for four miles, with an average depth of from two to four fathoms. Then come the rapids of the Old Castle, but little more than half a mile in extent, with water from two to four fathoms. The river is clear again for about two miles, with water from two and a half and five fathoms, where begin the rapids of Mico and Las Balas, connected and running into each other, and both together not more than a mile, with water from one to three fathoms. Then the river is clear one mile and a half to the rapids of Machuca, which extend a mile, and are the worst of all, the water being more broken, from running over a broken rocky bottom. The river then runs clear and without any obstruction for ten miles, with water from two to seven fathoms, to the River San Carlos, and then eleven miles with some islands interspersed, with water

from one to six fathoms, to the River Serapequea, the measurements of one fathom being about the points or bends, where there is an accumulation of sand and mud. It then continues seven miles clear, with water from two to five fathoms, to the Rio Colorado. The River Colorado runs out of the San Juan in another direction into the Atlantic. The loss to the latter, according to measurement taken in the month of May, 1839, was 28,178 cubic yards of water per minute, and in the month of July in the same year, during the rising of the waters, it was 85,840 yards per minute, which immense body might be saved to the San Juan by damming up the mouth of the River Colorado. From this point there are thirteen miles with soundings of from three to eight fathoms. The bottom is of sand and mud, and there are many small islands and aggregations of sand without trees, very easily cleared away. The last thirteen miles might be reduced to ten by restoring the river to its old channel, which has been filled up by collections, at points, of drifted matter. An old master of a piragua told Mr. B—— that within his memory trees grew half a mile back. The soundings were all taken with the plotting scale when the river was low, and the port of San Juan, though small, Mr. Baily considers unexceptionable.

“The whole length of the canal, from the Lake of Nicaragua to the Pacific, is fifteen and two-third miles. According to the plan, in the first eight miles from the lake but one lock is necessary. In the next mile sixty-four feet of lockage are required. In the next three miles there are about two of deep cutting and one of tunnel, and then a descent of 200 feet in three miles by lockage to the Pacific.

“Thus far of the canal across the Isthmus. The Lake of Nicaragua is navigable for ships of the largest class down to the mouth of the River San Juan. This river has an average fall of one and six-sevenths feet per mile to the Atlantic. If the bed of the river cannot be cleared out, a communication can be made either by lock and dam, or by a canal along the bank of the river. The latter would be more expensive, but on account of the heavy floods of the rainy season it is preferable.

“I am authorised to state that the physical obstructions of the country present no impediment to the accomplishment of this work. A canal large enough for the passage of boats of the usual size could be made at a trifling expense. A tunnel of the length required is not considered a great work in the United States. According to the plan of the Chesapeake and Ohio canal, a tunnel is contemplated upwards of four miles in length. The sole difficulty is the same which would exist in any route in any other region of country, viz., the great dimensions of the excavation required for a ship canal.

“The data here given are of course insufficient for great accuracy, but I present a rough estimate of the cost of this work, furnished me with the plan. It is predicated upon the usual contract prices in the United States, and I think I am safe in saying that the cheapness of labour in Nicaragua will equalise any advantages and facilities that exist here.

“The estimate is—

	dollars.
From the lake to east end of the tunnel	8,000,000 to 10,000,000
Descent to the Pacific	2,000,000 to 3,000,000
From the lake to the Atlantic by canal along the bank of the river	10,000,000 to 12,000,000
	20,000,000 to 25,000,000

which is but about the sum contemplated as the cost of our enlarged Erie canal.”

Mr. Stephens remarks—

“In regard to the advantages of this work I shall not go into any details.

“I will remark, however, that on one point there exists a great and very general error. In the documents submitted to Congress before referred to, it is stated that ‘the trade of the United States and of Europe with China, Japan, and the Indian Archipelago, would be facilitated and increased by reason of shortening the distance, about four thousand miles;’ but by measurement on the globe the distance from Europe to India and China

will not be shortened at all. This is so contrary to the general impression that I have some hesitation in making the assertion, but it is a point on which the reader may satisfy himself by referring to the globe. The trade of Europe with India and Canton, then, will not necessarily pass through this channel from any saving of distance; but from conversations with masters of vessels and other practical men, I am induced to believe that by reason of more favourable latitudes for winds and currents, it will be considered preferable to the passage by the Cape of Good Hope. At all events all the trade of Europe, with the western coast of the Pacific and the Polynesian Islands, and all her whale fishing, and all the trade of the United States with the Pacific, without the exception of a single vessel would pass through it; the amount of saving on which, in time, interest of money, navigating expenses and insurance, by avoiding the stormy passage round Cape Horn, I have no data for calculating.

"On broad grounds, this work has been well characterised as 'the mightiest event in favour of the peaceful intercourse of nations which the physical circumstances of the globe present to the enterprise of man.' It will compose the distracted country of Central America, turn the sword which is now drenching it with blood into a pruning-hook; remove the prejudices of the inhabitants by bringing them into close connexion with people of every nation; furnish them with a motive and a reward for industry, and inspire them with a taste for making money, which, after all, opprobrious as it is sometimes considered, does more to civilise and keep the world at peace than any other influence whatever. A great city will grow up in the heart of the country with streams issuing from it fertilising as they roll into the interior; her magnificent mountains and valleys now weeping in desolation and waste will smile and be glad. The commerce of the world will be changed; the barren region of Terra del Fuego be forgotten; Patagonia become a land of fable, and Cape Horn live only in the recollection of sailors and insurers; steamboats will go smoking along the rich coasts of Chili, Peru, Equados, Grenada, Guatemala, California, our own Oregon Territory, and the Russian possessions on the borders of Behring's Straits. New markets will be opened for products of agriculture and manufactures, and the intercourse of communion of numerous and immense bodies of the human race will assimilate and improve the character of nations. The whole world is interested in this work. I would not speak of it with sectional or even national feeling; but if Europe is indifferent, it would be glory surpassing the conquests of kingdoms to make this great enterprise ever attempted by human force entirely our own work.

"I would have gone on immediately, but felt that I might exert myself too far, and break down at an awkward place. In the afternoon, in company with Mr. Baily and Mr. Wood, I walked down to the lake. At the foot of the street by which we entered, built out into the lake, was an old fort, dismantled and overgrown with bushes and trees, a relic of the daring Spaniards who first drove the Indians from the lake;—probably, the very fortress that Cordova built, and in its ruins beautifully picturesque. Under the walls, and within the shade of the fort and trees growing near it, the Indian women of Grenada were washing; garments of every colour were hanging on the bushes to dry, and waving in the wind; women were wading out with their water-jars, passing beyond the breakers to obtain it clear of sand, men were swimming and servants were bringing horses and mules to drink, altogether presenting a beautifully animated picture. There were no boats on the water, but about half-a-dozen piraguas, the largest of which was forty feet long and drew three feet of water, were lying on the shore."—*Travels in Central America, Mr. Baily's Report, &c.*

We have given the foregoing information, being the substance of all that is worth knowing of the materials within our power: not, however, with the expectation that any of the projects are to be soon undertaken, but with the view of showing the practicability of executing a canal across one of the projected lines.

CHAPTER VIII.

ANCIENT RUINS OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

THOSE remarkable ruins which have been discovered in Central America and Yucatan, are generally supposed to have been edifices constructed by races which had become extinct before the discovery of America, and not by any of the nations that were found inhabiting those parts by the first Spanish conquerors.

The accounts given of the population of the countries subdued by Cortez, Alvarado, and other captains, and the researches made since the beginning of the present century, compel us to conclude that all the ruins discovered by M. Dupaix, Del Rio, M. Waldeck, and Mr. Stephens, were built by the nations conquered by the Spaniards, and that they were, in all probability, in a perfect state at the same period.

M. Waldeck had preceded Mr. Stephens to Palenque and Uxmal, and his work was published in folio, with beautiful plates, in Paris, before the work of the latter made its appearance, but not before the drawings in Mr. Stephens' work were completed. The similarity is so striking, that both must be correct; and without the plans and drawings, any description which we could give would be unsatisfactory. Antiquarians must refer, therefore, to the works of M. Dupaix, M. Waldeck, and Mr. Stephens. In each of them there is much to instruct, and much for those to reflect upon who take an interest in the history and destiny of mankind.

We have no doubt of those edifices having been constructed by the same races as the nations conquered by Cortez and Alvarado, notwithstanding the absence of tradition: for the destructive and withering policy of Spain exterminated, or barbarised, the conquered so effectually, as to annihilate even tradition.

The ruins on the sea-coast of Yucatan, visited by Mr. Stephens, were seen and even described as majestic edifices by the Spanish navigators; and from his observations on the ruins of Uxmal, in the interior, they were evidently constructed by the ancestors of the wretched remnants of the aborigines, still, in degradation, inhabiting the country of Yucatan. Near Cape Catoche, the ruins of an entire city have been unmasked. There are two pyramids on the banks of the Rio Lagertos, nearly concealed by the trees grown on them. Tumuli are found near Campeachy, in other parts of Yucatan; and near them articles of *terra cotta*, and human heads curiously wrought, are found. In other places, as at Champoton, ruins have been discovered nearly covered with a dense forest of

strong vegetation. The ruins of Cozumel, near the sea, are of vast extent. Traces of many others have been discovered, but Yucatan is still but imperfectly explored. At Uxmal the examinations of Mr. Stephens and M. Waldeck have been published, and the plates, and descriptions, are very remarkable.

Of the ruins in Central America, those of Copan were the first visited by Mr. Stephens.

COPAN is within that portion of the State of Honduras, which comprises one of the most fertile valleys or basins in Central America. It is still famed for the excellent quality of its tobacco. The ruins stand, or lie, on the left bank of an unnavigable river, the River Copan, a tributary of the Motagua.

The ruins, as far as yet known, extend along the river more than two miles. One monument has been discovered on the opposite side, at about a mile from the river. It stands on the summit of a mountain 2000 feet high.

The ruin near the river, which Mr. Stephens named the *Temple*, is, he says, "an oblong enclosure. The front or river wall extends on a right line north and south 624 feet, and it is from sixty to ninety feet in height. It is made of cut stones, from three to six feet in length, and a foot and a half in breadth. In many places the stones have been thrown down, by bushes growing out of the crevices; and in one place there is a small opening, from which the ruins are sometimes called by the Indians *Las Ventanas*, or the windows. The other three sides consist of ranges of steps of pyramidal structure, rising from thirty to 140 feet in height on the slope. The whole line of survey is 2866 feet, which, though gigantic, and extraordinary for a ruined structure of the aborigines, that the reader's imagination may not mislead him, I consider it necessary to say, is not so large as the base of the great Pyramid of Ghizeh."

Mr. Stephens has drawn a plan according to his survey, which illustrates the ground-plan of this edifice, which is regularly laid out at right angles. In his description of these ruins, he says,

"To begin on the right; near the south-west corner of the river wall is a recess, which was probably once occupied by a colossal monument fronting the water. Beyond, are the remains of two small pyramidal structures, to the largest of which is attached a wall running along the west bank of the river; this appears to have been one of the principal walls of the city; and between the two pyramids there seems to have been a gateway, or principal entrance, from the water.

"The south wall runs at right angles to the river, beginning with a range of steps about thirty feet high, and each step about eighteen feet square. At the south-east corner is a massive pyramidal structure, 120 feet high on the slope. On the right are other remains of terraces and pyramidal buildings; and here, also, was probably a gateway, by a passage about twenty feet wide, into a quadrangular area, 250 feet square, on two sides of which are massive pyramids, 120 feet high on the slope.

"At the foot of these structures, and in different parts of the quadrangular area, are numerous remains of sculpture. At one point, marked E, is a colossal monument, richly sculptured, fallen and ruined: behind it, fragments of sculpture, thrown from their places by the trees, grown up, are strewed and lying loose on the side of the

pyramid, from the base to the top, and among them our attention was forcibly arrested by rows of death's heads, of gigantic proportions, still standing in their places about half way up the side of the pyramid: the effect was extraordinary.

"Of the moral effect of the monuments themselves, standing, as they do, in the depths of a tropical forest, silent and solemn, strange in design, excellent in sculpture, rich in ornament, different from the works of any other people, their uses and purposes, their whole history, so entirely unknown, with hieroglyphics explaining all, but perfectly unintelligible, I shall not pretend to convey any idea. The tone which pervades the ruins is that of deep solemnity. An imaginative mind might be infected with superstitious feelings. From constantly calling them by that name in our intercourse with the Indians, we regarded these solemn memorials as 'idols'—deified kings and heroes—objects of adoration and ceremonial worship."

Mr. Stephens was unable to discover on these monuments, or on the sculptured fragments, any delineations of human or other sacrifice, but he considered the large sculptured stone invariably found before each "idol," as having been used as a sacrificial altar. The form of sculpture most frequent was a death's head, sometimes the principal and sometimes only an accessory ornament: whole rows of these heads on the outer wall, "adding gloom to the mystery of the place, keeping before the eyes of the living death and the grave, presenting the idea of a holy city—the Mecca or Jerusalem of an unknown people."

As to the age of these desolate ruins he offers no conjecture, nor does he consider as data the accumulations of earth and the gigantic trees growing on the top of the ruins; neither could he discover any tradition of its depopulation or its ruin.

No trace was found as to whether the agents of destruction, or desolation, were the sword, or famine, or pestilence. "The trees," he says, "which shroud it may have sprung from the blood of its slaughtered inhabitants. One thing I believe, that its history is graven on its monuments. No Champollin has yet brought to them the energies of his inquiring mind. Who shall read them?"

He almost doubts that this is the place referred to by the Spanish historian as conquered by Hernandez de Chaves. He considers, however, that at that time its broken monuments, terraces, pyramidal structures, portals, walls, and sculptured figures, were entire, and they were all painted.

The silence of the Spaniards may, however, be accounted for from the well-known fact that they were nearly all illiterate, and ignorant, adventurers—thirsting chiefly for gold and the precious metals, and regardless of every other object. Even if reports were made by them, the government of Spain would have suppressed all information which would have attracted the attention of other European nations to America.

RUINS OF QUIRIGUA.—Mr. Catherwood, leaving the road and continuing through the forest toward the north-east for about three-quarters of an hour, reached the foot of a pyramidal structure, similar to those at Copan, with the steps in some places perfect. He ascended to the top (about twenty-five feet), and descending on the other side by steps, he discovered at a short distance from the pyramid a colossal head, six feet in diameter. It was nearly concealed by an

enormous tree. Near it was a large altar. Both were within the same enclosure, and so covered with moss that he fancied it impossible to make any thing out of it.

To the north, about three or four hundred yards from the pyramid, he found several monuments of the same general character with those at Copan, but twice or three times as high.

Mr. Stephens says,—

“Of one thing there is no doubt, a large city once stood there; its name is lost, its history unknown; and except for a notice taken from Mr. C.’s notes, and inserted by the *Senores Payes* in a Guatemala paper after the visit, which found its way to this country and Europe, no account of its existence has ever before been published. For centuries it has lain as completely buried as if covered with the lava of Vesuvius. Every traveller from Yzabal to Guatemala has passed within three hours of it—we ourselves had done the same—and yet there it lay, like the rock-built city of Edom, unvisited, unsought, and utterly unknown.”

RUINS OF PALENQUE.—A short distance from the village of Palenque the River Chacamal separates it from the country of the *unbaptised Indians*, who at this place are called *KHARIBEES*.

The ruins of Palenque are distant about eight miles from the village, amid a desolate forest region. Mr. Stephens found the road was so bad that, in order to make explorations, it was necessary for him to remain at the ruins. He had great difficulty in procuring provisions.

It is said of these ruins, that in 1750 a party of Spaniards penetrated to the country north of the district of Carmen, in Chiapa, when they suddenly discovered in the midst of the forest wilderness, ancient stone edifices, the remains of a city, spread over a country of from eighteen to twenty-four miles in extent, and called by the Indians *Casas de Piedras*.

On this story, Mr. Stephens remarks,—

“From my knowledge of the country I am at a loss to conjecture why a party of Spaniards were travelling in that forest, or how they could have done so. I am inclined to believe rather that the existence of the ruins was discovered by the Indians, who had clearings in different parts of the forest for their corn-fields, or perhaps was known to them from time immemorial, and on their report the inhabitants were induced to visit them.”

The existence of such a city was entirely unknown in Europe; there is no mention of it in any book, until that published by Dupaix, of which Lord Kingsborough’s volumes, in regard to Palenque, is a transcript. Colonel Galindo’s communications to the Geographical Society of Paris, are incorporated in the works of Dupaix. M. Waldeck, with funds contributed by an association in Mexico, passed two years amidst these ruins. His drawings were taken away by the Mexican government, but he had retained copies.

In regard to the extent of the ruins of Palenque, Mr. Stephens observes,

“The Indians and the people of Palenque say, that they cover a space of sixty miles; in a series of well-written articles in our own country, they have been set down as ten times larger than New York; and lately I have seen an article in some of the

newspapers, referring to our expedition, which represents the city discovered by us, as having been three times as large as London !

"The Indians and people of Palenque really know nothing of the ruins personally, and the other accounts do not rest upon any sufficient foundation. The whole country for miles around is covered by a dense forest of gigantic trees, with a growth of bush and underwood unknown in the wooded deserts of our own country, and impenetrable in any direction except by cutting a way by a *machete*. What lies buried in the forest it is impossible to say of my own knowledge : without a guide, we might have gone within a hundred feet of all the buildings without discovering one of them.

"Captain Del Rio, the first explorer, with men and means at command, states in his report, that in the execution of his commission, he cut down and burnt all the woods : he does not say how far, but judging from the breaches and excavations made in the interior of the buildings, probably for miles around. Captain Dupaix, acting under a royal commission, and with all the resources such a commission would give, did not discover any more buildings than those mentioned by Del Rio, and we saw only the same : but having the benefit of them as guides, at least of Del Rio (for at that time we had not seen Dupaix's work), we of course saw things which escaped their observation, just as those who come after us will see what escaped ours."

A description of the building or ruin which Mr. Stephens chose to live in, was called the palace.

"It stands," he says, "on an artificial elevation of an oblong form, forty feet high, 310 feet front and rear, and 260 feet on each side. This elevation was formerly faced with stone, which has been thrown down by the growth of trees, and its form is hardly distinguishable.

"The building stands with its face to the east, and measures 228 feet front, by 180 feet deep. Its height is not more than twenty-five feet, and all around it had a broad projecting cornice of stone. The front contains fourteen doorways, about nine feet wide each, and the intervening piers are between six and seven feet wide. On the left (in approaching the palace) eight of the piers have fallen down, as has also the corner on the right, and the terrace underneath is cumbered with the ruins. But six piers remain entire, and the rest of the front is open.

"Another portion was enclosed by a richly-ornamented border, about ten feet high and six wide, of which only a part now remains. The principal personage stands in an upright position and in profile, exhibiting an extraordinary facial angle of about forty-five degrees. The upper part of the head seemed to have been compressed and lengthened, perhaps by the same process employed upon the heads of the Choctaw and Flat-head Indians of our own country. The head represents a different species from any now existing in that region of country ; and supposing the statues to be images of living personages, or the creations of artists according to their ideas of perfect figures, they indicate a race of people now lost and unknown. The head-dress is evidently a plume of feathers ; over the shoulders is a short covering, decorated with studs and a breast-plate ; part of the ornament of the girdle is broken ; the tunic is probably a leopard's skin ; and the whole dress, no doubt, exhibits the costume of this unknown people. He holds in his hand a staff or sceptre, and opposite his hands are the marks of three hieroglyphics, which have decayed or been broken off. At his feet are two naked figures, seated cross-legged, and apparently suppliants. The hieroglyphics doubtless tell its story. The stucco is of admirable consistency, and hard as stone. It was painted, and in different places about it we discovered the remains of red, blue, yellow, black, and white.

"The piers, which are still standing, contained other figures of the same general character, but which, unfortunately, are more mutilated, and from the declivity of the terrace it was difficult to set up the camera lucida in such a position as to draw them. The piers which are fallen were no doubt enriched with the same ornaments. Each one had some specific meaning, and the whole, probably, presented some allegory or history ; and when entire and painted the effect in ascending the terrace must have been imposing and beautiful.

"The whole court-yard was over-grown with trees, and it was incumbered with ruins several feet high, so that the exact architectural arrangements could not be seen."

He ascended a neighbouring mountain so steep that he was obliged to haul himself up by the branches. On the top was a high mound of stones, with a foundation-wall still remaining. Probably a tower or temple had stood there, but the woods were so thick below that he could perceive no ruins.

The hieroglyphics at Palenque are the same as those at Copan and Quimigua, and although those places are occupied by races of Indians speaking different languages and unintelligible to each other, there is no reason to doubt but that they originally used the same hieroglyphics, or written character. He says—

"There is no staircase or other visible communication between the lower and upper parts of this building (the temple), and the only way of reaching the latter was by climbing a tree, which grows close against the wall, and the branches of which spread over the roof. The roof is inclined, and the sides are covered with stucco ornaments, which, from exposure to the elements and the assaults of trees and bushes, are faded and ruined, so that it was impossible to draw them; but enough remained to give the impression that when perfect and painted they must have been rich and imposing. Along the top was a range of pillars eighteen inches high and twelve apart, made of small pieces of stone laid in mortar and covered with stucco, crowning which is a layer of flat projecting stones, having somewhat the appearance of a low, open balustrade.

"In front of this building, at the foot of a pyramidal structure, is a small stream, part of which supplies the aqueduct before referred to. Crossing this, we come upon a broken stone terrace, about sixty feet on the slope, with a level esplanade at the top, 110 feet in breadth, from which rises another pyramidal structure, now ruined and overgrown with trees; it is 134 feet high on the slope, and on its summit is a building like the first shrouded among trees.

"This building is fifty feet front, thirty-one feet deep, and has three door-ways. The whole front was covered with stuccoed ornaments. The two outer piers contain hieroglyphics; one of the inner piers is fallen, and the other is ornamented with a figure in bas-relief, but faded and ruined.

"At about a mile and a half from the village, we came to a range of elevations extending to a great distance, and connected by a ditch, which had evidently formed the line of fortifications for the ruined city. They consisted of the remains of stone buildings, probably towers, the stones well cut and laid together, and the mass of rubbish around abounded in flint arrow-heads. Within this line was an elevation which grew more imposing as we approached, square, with terraces, and having in the centre a tower, in all 120 feet high. We ascended by steps to three ranges of terraces, and on the top entered an area enclosed by stone walls, and covered with hard cement, in many places still perfect. Thence we ascended by stone steps to the top of the tower, the whole of which was formerly covered with stucco, and stood as a fortress at the entrance of the great city of Utatlan, the capital of the Quichi Indians.

"This was the first appearance of strangers in Utatlan, the capital of the great Indian kingdom, the ruins of which were now under our eyes, once the most populous and opulent city, out of the whole kingdom of Guatemala.

"The padre asserted, that four days on the road to Mexico, on the other side of the great sierra, was a living city, large and populous, occupied by Indians precisely in the same state as before the discovery of America. He had heard of it many years before at the village of Chajul, and was told by the villagers that from the topmost ridge of the sierra this city was distinctly visible. He was then young, and with much labour climbed to the naked summit of the sierra, from which at a height of ten or twelve thousand feet, he looked over an immense plain extending to Yucatan and the Gulf of Mexico, and saw at a great distance, a large city spread over a great space, and with turrets white and glittering in the sun. The traditionary accounts of the Indians of Chajul is, that no white

man has ever reached this city; that the inhabitants speak the Maya language, are aware that a race of strangers has conquered the whole country around, and murder any white man who attempts to enter their territory. They have no coin or circulating medium; no horses, cattle, mules, or domestic animals, except fowls, and the cocks they keep under ground to prevent their crowing being heard.

"If he is right, a place is left where Indians and an Indian city exist as Cortez and Alvarado found them; there are living men who can solve the mystery that hangs over the ruined cities of America; perhaps, who can go to Cospan and read the inscriptions on its monuments. No subject more exciting and attractive presents itself to my mind, and the deep impression of that night will never be effaced.

"Can it be true? being now in my sober senses. I do verily believe there is much ground to suppose, that what the padre told us is authentic. That the region referred to does not acknowledge the government of Guatemala, has never been explored, and that no white man ever pretends to enter it I am satisfied. From other sources we heard that, from that sierra a large ruined city was visible, and we were told of another person who had climbed to the top of the sierra, but on account of the dense cloud resting upon it, had been unable to see any thing. At all events the belief at the village of Chajul is general, and a curiosity is roused that burns to be satisfied."

CHAPTER IX.

AGRICULTURE OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE productions of the soil of Central America both agricultural and natural, are as varied as the climate. On the higher table-lands wheat, barley, and the rare fruits and vegetables of Europe are grown. Indian corn is also raised, as the principal article of food; in some parts rice is grown. The common fruits and vegetables are apples, pears, peaches, apricots, grapes, and oranges; melons, beans, kidney-beans, peas, barbanzas, or Spanish peas, lentils, potatoes, turnips, cabbages, and pumpkins. From the *maguey*, as in Mexico, a spirituous liquor is distilled. (See abstracts from the works of Mr. Stephens and Mr. Roberts.)

In the lower plains and valleys the soil yields annually two crops of Indian corn; sugar-cane, bananas, mandioca, pine-apples, cocoa-nuts, sapotes, and sweet potatoes, are all cultivated, or grow naturally. Indigo, cochineal, tobacco, and cotton are cultivated. Indigo is chiefly grown between the table-land of Honduras and the Pacific, in the state of Salvador, in the neighbourhood of San Vicente and San Miguel. Cochineal is gathered on the table-land of Guatemala, which, and on the plains of Oaxaca, in Mexico, are the two places where the cochineal insect is found most abundant. Tobacco has always been a government monopoly, and the culture has been consequently very limited. The cacao, once grown in Soconusco, was considered so far superior to all others that the Spanish court retained it for its exclusive use. The quantities of cacao now raised in all Central America is said not to be sufficient for the domestic consumption. Sugar, in small plantations, is raised in many parts, for home consumption; small quantities of it are exported to Peru. Coffee is

said not to be used in the country by the Spanish or native race, and there are but a few coffee plantations, which yield enough for the use of foreign residents.

The haciendas resemble those of Mexico, but vary according to their production. Mr. Stephens says of one of these on which cochineal was produced, near Old Guatemala,

“ In the yard were four oxen grinding sugar-cane, and behind was the *nopol*, or cochineal plantation, one of the largest in the Antigua. The plant is a *species of cactus*, set out in rows like Indian corn; and at the time I speak of, it was about four feet high. On every leaf was pinned with a thorn a piece of cane, in the hollow of which were thirty or forty insects. These insects cannot move, but breed, and the young crawl out and fasten upon the leaf; when they have once fixed they never move; a light film gathers over them, and as they feed the leaves become mildewed and white. At the end of the dry season some of the leaves are cut off and hung up in a storehouse for seed, the insects are brushed off from the rest and dried, and are then sent abroad to minister to the luxuries and elegances of civilised life, and enliven, with their bright colours, the salons of London, Paris, and St. Louis in Missouri. The crop is valuable, but uncertain, as an early rain may destroy it; and sometimes all the workmen of a hacienda are taken away for soldiers at the moment when they are most needed for its culture. The situation was ravishingly beautiful, at the base and under the shade of the Volcano de Agua, and the view was bounded on all sides by mountains of perpetual green; the morning air was soft and balmy, but pure and refreshing; with good government and laws, and one's friends around, I never saw a more beautiful spot on which man could desire to pass his allotted time on earth.”

When the country around Guatemala was taken possession of by the Spaniards, the lands around the capital were partitioned out among the *Canonigos*. Indians were allotted them as *adscripti Glebae* to cultivate the soil. A village was formed, and the name of the *Canonigo* given to it. A church was then erected, and near it a large house for the ecclesiastic. In this way many parts were at an early period cultivated. Another hacienda, at which Mr. Stephens stopped, was in a large clearing, surrounded with forest. It had a *cosina* and sheds, and a large sugar-mill. In the evening twenty or thirty workmen, principally Indians, came to the masters to give an account of their day's work, and receive orders for the next. The proprietors of this hacienda were two brothers. They gave him for supper, on a small table placed between his hammock and one of the beds, fried eggs, *frijoles*, or black-beans, and tortillas; but, as usual in the country, without knife, fork, or spoon.

The hacienda of a Dr. Drivon, about a league from Zonzonate, he describes as one of the finest haciendas in the country. The doctor had imported a large sugar-mill, and was preparing to manufacture sugar upon a larger scale than was known in any other part of the country. He came from the island of St. Lucia to this place, and he was well acquainted with Europe, and with all the West India Islands.

A Mr. Bridges, an Englishman, from one of the West India Islands, who had been resident in Central America many years, was married to a lady of Leon, and, on account of the disordered state of government, lived on his hacienda;

the soil of which was fertile. He informed Mr. Stephens, that fifty men on his grounds *could* manufacture sugar cheaper than two hundred in the West India Islands; but that no reliance could be placed upon Indian labour.

LIVE STOCK.—Cattle in immense herds are reared on the pastures. In the plains of Honduras, and on the eastern districts of Nicaragua, there are cattle farms, on which are herds from 10,000 to 40,000 oxen, bulls, and cows. Horses and mules are bred for riding and for burden; but they are never shod, except a few for riding in the city of Guatemala. Sheep are reared on the upper plains, and swine are reared for the flesh.

CHAPTER X.

MANUFACTURES.

MANUFACTURING industry is in the rudest state in Central America. Ordinary articles are made of leather, cotton, wood, and metals. The wretched condition of the country renders every investment of capital insecure, and considering the fertility of the land for producing raw materials for exportation, it would be unwise to attempt manufacturing articles which can be imported from other countries, at half the cost at which they could be produced in any part of Central America. On the way to Realejo, Mr. Stephens visited the *maquina*, or the only cotton factory in the country. It was established by a citizen of the United States.

On the way to Realejo he visited a *maquina*, or cotton-factory, of which he had heard much on the road. It was the only one in the country, and owed its existence to the enterprise of a countryman, having been erected by a Mr. Higgins, who, disappointed in his efforts, and disgusted with the people, sold it to a Don Francisco and a Mr. Foster. Mr. Stephens says,

“They were sanguine in their expectations of profit; for they supposed, that by furnishing a market, the people would be induced to raise cotton enough for exportation to Europe. The resources of this distracted country are incalculable. Peace and industry would open fountains which would overflow with wealth; and I have no doubt the influence of this single factory will be felt in quieting and enriching the whole district within its reach.”

Mr. Stephens has been no prophet in these remarks. If the country were inhabited by people from the United Kingdom, or from Massachusetts, his expectations would have been realised.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

Of the trade and navigation of this country, no statistical account can be obtained. Small vessels from the West Indies and the United States, and occasionally from Europe, frequent the coasts, and carry on a trade, chiefly contra-

band, in consequence of the pernicious system of high duties, which the government of the day, in some mischievous form or other, has attempted to establish. Vessels from the western coasts of America also land various articles. Costa Rica has separated from the other states. Salvador may also be said to act independently. Guatemala is still under the sway of the Indian Carrera. Nicaragua has its separate misrule, and Honduras has published its distinct administration, and customs' laws. The tonnage duties for anchorage are four reals, or about two shillings, per ton for native vessels, and double that amount for foreign vessels. These were the rates established in 1837 for all the other states. Export duties, as well as import, are also attempted to be levied, but at such irregular and changeable rates, that we have not been able to procure correct data to enable us to give tabular statements or tariff for any of the states of Central America. (*See Statistics of the Spanish American Republics hereafter.*)

CHAPTER XI.

NEW GRANADA.

THE republic of New Granada after its separation from the Confederation, which, under the name of Columbia, included Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Granada, comprises the north-western region of South America, and extends from the boundary of Central America to that of the more recently constituted republic of Ecuador. New Granada may, therefore, be considered as extending north from near the equinoctial line, to nearly 12 deg. north latitude, and east to west from about 70 deg. to 83 deg. west longitude. The interior limits, as well as the country, may be considered, as very imperfectly defined.

The area of New Granada is vaguely stated at 380,000 square miles; its greatest length, about 800 miles; the greatest breadth from the Rio Orinoco, between the mouths of the rivers Guaviare and Meta, to the Pacific, at about 600 miles.

On the east it borders on the republic of Venezuela: on the north is the Gulf of Darien and the Caribbean Sea; and near the western limit of the republic, the Laguna de Chiriqui. The not well defined boundary of Central America separates New Granada, or rather Veragua, by a line over the Isthmus of Panama, from the Caribbean Sea, a few miles west of the Laguna de Chiriqui, to Cape Boruca on the Pacific. The latter bounds New Granada south to Ecuador.

The western and Central Andes, are the great mountain ranges which spread over the country between 5 deg. and 8 deg. N. latitude, east of the Rio Magdalena. The basins of the rivers Magdalena, Cauca, Atrato, San Juan, and several other

rivers and streams, are comprised within New Granada. Along the shores of the Caribbean Sea, the lands are generally low, from the mouths of the Rio Magdalena to the Rio Atrato. The isthmus of Panama and Veragua, though politically but loosely connected with the republic, are comprised within New Granada. About one-third of the Eastern Andes, or Great Cordillera, are also within this state. Of the great plains, termed the Llanos, a great portion belongs to New Granada. In the south-western parts are situated the mountain-region of Los Pastos, and the basin of the Rio Patia. These diversified regions vary greatly in climate, fertility, and productions.

The region west of the lake of Maracaybo is said to be fertile, with a healthy climate, and either covered with forests, or spreading into prairies and pastures. It is very thinly settled. The páramos of the Andes are extensive table-lands, on the summits of the range, nearly without vegetation; the lower districts are fertile, and the climate favourable to the cultivation of European grain and fruits: in the lower north-western districts, near the basins, all tropical plants thrive, and these districts are comparatively populous. The declivities of the Central Andes are said to be barren. The mountain region east of the Magdalena is arid, the soil rocky, and but little settled or cultivated. It is said to be rich in gold and silver. The lands along the Caribbean Sea are generally described as fertile, the greater part as alluvial, and very unhealthy. Except along the banks of the Rio Magdalena, it is thinly settled. It is generally covered with forest, and produces all tropical plants. The eastern districts of the Isthmus of Panama and Veragua are covered with wood, fertile, unhealthy, and thinly inhabited; to the west of which prairies occur, and the uplands are fertile, more salubrious, and more populous. The region along the Pacific, west of the Andes and south of latitude 5 deg. N., is chiefly covered with dense forests, subject to incessant rains, excessive heat, and an intermitting climate. The mountain region of Los Pastos is in few parts fit for the cultivation of wheat or maize, but affords good pastures. In some of the valleys the grain crops of Europe will grow. The Llanos, north from the Rio Vichada, is similar to, and, in fact, a continuation of, the cattle plains of Carácas and Varinas, and affords pasture to numberless herds of cattle and horses. The southern Llanos are described as covered with forests, or intermingled with extensive swamps. They are inhabited by native tribes, and are considered very unhealthy.

RIVERS.—Several tributaries of the Orinoco are navigable, but they are scarcely ever used. The Meta, and its tributary, the Cazanare, are navigated. The Magdalena, and its tributaries, the Rio Cesare, which flows from the lake of Zapatosa, the Canaverales, the Sogamozo, and the Rio Negro, are navigated. These rivers flow into the Magdalena from the east. The Cauca, and the Atrato and its tributaries, are navigated. The Sinú is navigable as far as Lorica, the

Chagres up to Cruces, and the San Juan to Novita. The Rio Patia, for some distance, is navigated; small craft only are used, and even the Magdalena, though called the Danube of New Granada, is said to be interrupted by shallows. We have, however, but a very imperfect knowledge of these rivers, as well as of New Granada generally.

Numerous small and generally deep lakes occur on the slopes of the mountain ridges and on the páramos; large lakes are not numerous in the interior. The Lake of Zapatosa is scarcely known. North of the town of Bogotá, a lake occupies the greater part of a plain about seventy miles long, and more than fifteen wide, but it is shallow, no part being more than six feet deep. The Lake Sebondoy, in the mountain region of Los Pastos, is considered as the source of the Rio Putumayo, an affluent of the Amazonas. Within the shores of the Caribbean Sea there are several lagoons, into which the sea flows. The Lagoon de Santa Marta, by means of which a water communication between Santa Marta and the Rio Magdalena is carried on; and the Cienega de Tosca, north-east of Cartagena, (more than forty-five miles long), are the largest.

CLIMATE.—The páramos, the elevated table-land of Bogotá, the vales of the Magdalena and Cauca, and low districts along the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific, the mountain regions have each its respective climate, and its variety of productions. European grains, potatoes, are cultivated on the table-land of Bogotá, in the districts north, and along the western declivity of the Eastern Andes. In the basins of the great rivers, and on the low lands along the sea-coast, maize, plantains, many vegetables, and fruits, cotton, cacao, tobacco, and some sugar, are cultivated. The forests yield many useful woods; among others, the brasileto and fustic, from the forests bordering the Sierra de Santa Marta. Ipecacuanha grows on the banks of the Rio Magdalena; cinchona on the Sierra de Santa Marta, the Andes of Merida, Santa Fé, and Popayan; the balsam of Tolù on the banks of the Rio Sinú. The plains of Cazanare pasture immense herds of cattle, which yield supplies of jerked beef and hides. Pearls were formerly fished in the sea opposite the mouth of the Rio Hacha, and a small quantity are still procured in the Bay of Panama.

MINERALS.—Gold is found in the Central and Western Andes. In the vale of the Rio Cauca it is procured by washing the sand of rivers and some alluvial soils. In the mountain region of Antioquia it is got by mining; it abounds still more in the countries along the Pacific, and occurs also in the Rio Zulia, and the Rio Hacha. Platinum is found along the Pacific, in the provinces of Chocò and Barbacoas. Silver is discovered less abundantly, and only in a few places in the Central Andes, near the mountain-pass of Quindì, and on the banks of the Rio Sinú. Iron ore and copper ore have been found in several places, especially in the mountains of Antioquia, but they are not worked; tin and lead are also found;

emeralds are abundant in a river north of the town of Bogotá, but they are generally small; coal occurs in abundance on the plain of Bogotá, and is also found on the banks of the Rio Sinú. According to Humboldt, a stratum of rock-salt traverses the Eastern Andes, between 5 deg. and 6 deg. north latitude, from south-west to north-east; it is worked at its extremities, at Zipaquira, on the plain of Bogotá, and at Chita, in the Llanos of Cazanare.

INHABITANTS.—The inhabitants of New Granada consist of the descendants of Spaniards, Indians, negroes, and the mixed races. The negroes and Zamboes were formerly numerous in the mining districts of Antioquia and along the Pacific, but both races have been much reduced by the war of independence. At the time of the arrival of the Spaniards, an Indian tribe, the Muyscos, inhabiting the table-land of Bogotá, and the adjacent countries, had attained a considerable degree of civilisation, and their descendants still inhabit the western declivity of the Eastern Andes, and the vale of the Upper Magdalena. The inhabitants of the mountain-region of Los Pastos are described as of Peruvian race. The Indians who have been baptised by the missionaries inhabit the north-eastern part of New Granada, between the Lake of Maracaybo and the town of Cartagena, and also the lower vale of the Cauca. In the upper vale of that river there are few or no Indians. The native tribes along the Pacific, do not appear to have much improved since the arrival of the Spaniards, those of the Isthmus of Panama, we have already described as independent, and in a state of hostility to the Spanish race. The Cattle Plains are mostly peopled by mixed races, especially Mestizos, and the Wooded Plains are in the possession of native tribes.

POPULATION.—According to a census published in 1827, the whole population amounted to 1,270,000 inhabitants. The number was some time after estimated at 1,360,000 inhabitants, distributed among the five PROVINCES as follows:

PROVINCES.	Area in Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants on a Square Mile.
	number.	number.	number.
Istmo	25,000	100,000	4
Magdalena	50,900	250,000	5
Boyaca	83,000	450,000	5½
Cundinamarca.....	152,800	370,000	less than 2
Cauca	68,300	190,000	3
Total.....	380,000	1,360,000	

The most populous districts are the central portions of Boyàca and Cundinamarca, and the province of Veragua; the vale of the Rio Magdalena and the upper vale of the Rio Cauca are much less populous. The other parts are thinly inhabited, and with the exception of a few small native tribes, the Wooded Plains contain no inhabitants at all.

The department of Istmo contains the provinces of Panamá and Veragua, already described.

The department of the Rio Magdalena comprehends the countries from the boundary of Venezuela westwards along the sea to the Gulf of Darien and the basin of the Rio Atrato, and is divided into the provinces of Rio de la Hacha, Santa Marta, Cartagena, and Mompox. It is only tolerably well settled along the coast and along the course of the Rio Magdalena: in the other districts there are scattered Indian families. Besides the Rio Magdalena and the Rio Cauca, the rivers Cesare and Cañaverales, two affluents of the Magdalena, and the Rio Sinú flow through this department. The products are cotton, cacao, tobacco, ipecacuanha, cinchona from the Sierra de Marta, balsam of Tolu, and dye-woods. Some of the rivers deposit gold dust, but it is not collected. Cartagena, with an inlet thirty-three miles in length, is formed by the islands of Tierra Bomba and of Barú: has three entrances, Bocca Grande, Bocca Chica, and the Estero de Pasacaballos. The Bocca Chica, through which vessels usually enter, is between seventeen and eighteen feet deep, and admits large vessels; it is twenty-eight miles below the town. Cartagena is well built and fortified. Its population is estimated at 18,000. The Estero de Pasacaballos is navigated by small vessels, but only for three months of the year. Baranca Nueva is situated where the Digue de Mahates enters the Magdalena, at which the goods brought from Cartagena are embarked on the Magdalena, and those which come down that river are disembarked. *Santa Marta* has a tolerably good harbour; it exports a great quantity of dye-woods. By means of the Cienega de Santa Marta, and some other lakes which are united by natural channels, imported goods are forwarded to the Rio Magdalena: the population of Santa Marta is estimated at 8000. Ciudad de la Hacha is situated near the boundary of Venezuela, and has a small harbour adapted for vessels of light burden. Mompox on the banks of the Rio Magdalena, with a population of about 10,000, is the depôt of the foreign goods destined for the basin of that river. Lorica stands on the banks of the Rio Sinú, at the place where it begins to be navigable; it has 1000 inhabitants, and some trade. Ocaña, not far from the mountains of that name, has 5000 inhabitants, and some inland trade, the goods are transported by the River Cañaverales.

The department of Boyàca comprises the Eastern Andes between the plain of Bogotá, the boundary of Venezuela, and the Cattle Plains of Cazanare; it is divided into the provinces of Pamplona, Socorro, Tunja, and Cazanare. The first three are situated along the mountain-regions, and are considered the best settled parts of New Granada. Wheat, cacao, cotton, coffee, tobacco, and indigo are collected and exported from the northern districts. At Chita there are mines of rock salt. On the Llanos are pastured the cattle, which are killed for jerked beef and ox-hides. The Rio Magdalena forms its western boundary, and the navigable streams of Sogamozo, Zulía, and Cazanare and Meta flow through this department. The inhabitants are chiefly whites or half-breeds: the number of

pure Indians is small. Il Rosario de Cúcuta is situated on the banks of the Rio Zúlia, a few miles above, where it becomes navigable, and near the boundary of Venezuela. It is the depôt for the produce of the surrounding districts, which is shipped for Maracaybo to be exported. Its population is estimated at 5000; cacao is grown in the neighbourhood. Salazar de las Palmas is situated in the midst of plantations of cacao. Pamplona rises on a table-land, on the northern declivity of the Andes, 8000 feet above the sea-level. In the neighbourhood there are some mines of gold: estimated population 4000. La Grita, situated in a tolerably well cultivated district, has a trading intercourse with Maracaybo. Girona, near the banks of the Cañaverales, carries on trade with Mompox: excellent tobacco is grown in the vicinity. Socorro, built on the declivity of a mountain, has about 12,000 inhabitants, and manufactures coarse cotton stuffs and straw-hats. Tunja, not far from the boundary of the department of Cundinamarca, is the capital of Boyàca, and contains about 7000 inhabitants. On the Llanos of Cazanare are situated the villages of Cazanare, Poré, and Chita.

The department of Cundinamarca comprehends the whole of the mountain-region of Antioquia, the upper vale of the Rio Magdalena, the Eastern Andes as far north as 5 deg. north latitude, and the Wooded Plains: it is divided into the provinces of Antioquia, Mariquita, Neyva, and Bogotá. On the plain of Bogotá, European wheat and other grains, and the aracacha root, are grown; the other districts yield tropical grains and plants. The cacao of the upper vale of the Rio Magdalena, is of excellent quality. There are mines of gold and silver in the north districts, and salt and coal are found in the Andes. The Rio Grande, a tributary of the Magdalena, is navigable. Several streams flowing into the Orinoco and negro are also navigable, but they are little used. The inhabitants consist of whites, Indians, and mixed races, nearly in equal proportions. Antioquia, on the banks of the Rio Cauca, and in the neighbourhood of some mines, has about 4000 inhabitants. Santa Rosa, a small place, has gold mines. Madellin, the capital, is situated in a fertile valley. It is estimated to have 9000 inhabitants. Mariquita is a small town, near some gold mines. Honda is a trading-place, near the confluence of the Rio Guali with the Rio Magdalena. Ibague, situated at the point where the Pass of Quindú crosses the Central Andes, has about 5000 inhabitants. Excellent tobacco is cultivated near Ambalema. Neyva, on the Rio Magdalena, has about 3000 inhabitants, and is the commercial depôt of the higher vale of the Rio Magdalena. Timana, near the source of the Rio Magdalena, yields excellent cacao.

SANTA FÉ DE BOGOTÀ, the capital of New Granada, stands on the east side of the spacious and fertile plain of Bogotá, 8958 feet above the sea, and 8280 feet above the surface of the Rio Magdalena at Honda. Behind the city the mountain rises nearly 2000 feet, almost perpendicular, and near the summit are

situated the convents of Montserrat and Guadelupe. The town is regularly built, but the houses are low, on account of the frequent earthquakes. The palace of the former viceroys is inhabited by the president of the republic: the senate assembles in a wing of the convent of the Dominicans, and the chamber of representatives in a private residence. The cathedral was a superb edifice, but it was nearly ruined by an earthquake, in 1827. The University consists of three colleges, all well situated and built. The population is estimated at between 30,000 and 40,000. This town owes its chief importance to its having been for a long period the seat of government. In the mountains behind the town is the source of the Rio San Francisco, which flows through the city, and in the middle of the plain joins the Rio Bogotá or Rio Funza, which, running southward, and turning to the south-west, descends from the plain by the cataract of Tequendama, and thence through a ravine nearly forty miles long. At the cataract the cleft between the rocks is only about thirty-six feet wide. The water descends in one unbroken mass, 900 feet, when the river is full, but in the dry season the fall is interrupted by two projecting rocks. Further to the east is the natural bridge of Icononzo or Pandi, which is formed by two large rocks that unite the opposite sides of a deep mountain ravine. The upper rock is 300 feet above the surface of the torrent, and the lower about 240 feet. North of the city is the Campo de Gigantes, on which gigantic fossil bones are said to be found. The Campo contains also a coal-field, and towards its northern border the rich salt mines of Zipaquira. Near Bogotá is the small lake of Guatavita, 8700 feet above the sea. It was supposed that the ancient inhabitants threw immense golden treasures into this lake. An attempt was made to drain it lake, for the purpose of getting these treasures; but the attempt did not succeed. On the descent from the plain of Bogotá to the banks of the Rio Magdalena stands the town of Guaduas in a fine valley, 3768 feet above the sea: estimated population, 4000. In this valley sugar-canes and tropical fruits are cultivated.

The department of Cauca comprehends the western section of New Granada, the vale of the Rio Atrato, the region along the Pacific, the upper vale of the Rio Cauca, and the mountain-region of Los Pastos. It is divided into the provinces of Chocò, Buenaventura, Popayan, and Pasto; and is drained by the upper river Cauca, and the rivers Atrato, S. Juan, and Patia. The products are, chiefly gold and platinum near the coast of the Pacific, and in the vales of the rivers Atrato and Cauco, the cattle which pasture in the savannas of the Rio Cauca, and the cacao grown along the coasts of the Pacific. The vale of the Rio Cauca is inhabited chiefly by a white population; the other districts, by Indians, intermixed with half-breeds, and a few negroes. The canal of Raspadura connects the upper courses of the rivers Atrato and S. Juan, and is navigable for canoes during four or five months in the year. Quibdo or Citara,

in the Rio Atrato, has some trade with Cartagena: the flat-bottomed boats used in the navigation of the river, traverse the sea between the mouth of the Atrato and Cartagena, and enter the latter port by the Estero de Pasacaballos: estimated population 3000. Novita, not far from the sources of the Rio S. Juan, at the western extremity of one of the passes over the Western Andes, has 2000 inhabitants. Buenaventura, a good harbour on the Pacific, is only inhabited by a few mixed-breed families. A very difficult road leads from it over the Western Andes to the town of Cali, in the vale of the Rio Cauca. This town is well built, has some trade, and about 4000 inhabitants. In the same vale, further to the north, is Cartago, with about 3000 inhabitants. It is situated at the western extremity of the long mountain-pass of Quindiu. Popayan, the capital of the department, is in a small plain, at the southern extremity of the vale of the Cauca, not far from the snow-capped volcano of Puracé and the Rio Venagre, or Vinegar River. It is well-built, and contains about 20,000 inhabitants. Almaguer, with about 4000 inhabitants, stands in a valley in the mountain-region of Los Pastos, 7440 feet above the sea. Pasto, built at the foot of a volcano, in a plain 8577 feet above the sea, is surrounded by woods and bogs. The great road which leads from Popayan to Quito, passes through Almaguer and Pasto.

AGRICULTURE.—We have very little information as to the agriculture of this state. All that we can place reliance upon will be found hereafter.—(*See Statistics of Spanish American Republics.*)

MANUFACTURES.—The manufacturing industry of New Granada is limited to the making of coarse woollen and cotton stuffs, which are chiefly made by the lower classes for their own consumption.

TRADE.—The maritime commerce of New Granada is far from important, considering the natural resources of this state. A great part of the exportable produce of the most populous districts of the mountainous country of Boyaca, is sent by the Rio Zulia to the harbour of Maracaybo, Venezuela. The produce which is carried down the Magdalena is exported from Santa Marta and Cartagena; vessels of 100 to 120 tons ascend from Citara to Cartagena; in consequence of bad roads, goods are carried on mules and men's backs from the Upper Cauca across the Andes to Porto Buenaventura, on the Pacific.—(*See Statistics of the Spanish American Republics hereafter.*)

CHAPTER XII.

VENEZUELA.

THE Republic of Venezuela is a vast, fertile and splendid region. Magnificent rivers, luxuriant forests, high mountains, low alluvial districts and islands,

and plains, are its most remarkable features. Our information respecting this state is far more satisfactory than that which we have collected respecting most of the other states of South America.*

This state is bounded on the north by the Gulf of Paria and the Caribbean Sea, on the east by British Guayana; on the south, along a not well-defined boundary line, by Brazil; and west by New Granada. The extent of Venezuela south to north, from the boundary of Brazil, in about 1 deg. 50 min. north latitude on the Rio Negro,—to Point Chuspa, in about 10 deg. 25 min. north latitude, is about 630 miles. The greatest extent from east to west from the Caño Cayuno, at the mouth of the Orinoco, in about 60 deg. west longitude, to a point west of Lake Maracaybo, in about 73 deg. west, is estimated at about 840 miles. Its boundaries are very irregular in outline and its area is vaguely estimated at about 410,000 square miles. This country owes its name to the following circumstance. When the Spaniards discovered this country, they found a great number of Indian villages situated about the lake, built on piles, which was the reason that they gave it the name of Venezuela, after Venezia, or Venice. This name soon extended to all the province; of which Coro became the first capital. The town of Caraccas having been afterwards made the metropolis of all the countries that compose the captain-generalship, its district took the name of the Province of Venezuela; the country surrounding the lake was named the province of Maracaybo; the other three continental provinces were termed Varinas, Guayana, and Cumana. The country known by the name of New Andalusia, as well as the Island of Margarita, formed part of the government of Cumana.

The Island of Trinidad formed at one time a sixth province, or particular government, depending on that of Caraccas, before the English got possession of it in 1797. A captain-general, intendant, and an *audiencia*, or supreme tribunal of justice and finance, composed the superior government of those provinces. The provincial governors were directly subjected to the captain-general of Caraccas, in all affairs concerning the military and civil government; also to the intendant, of whom they took the title of sub-delegates, for financial measures; and the royal *audiencia* was a tribunal to which appeals were made, not only from the decisions of the provincial courts, but also to which individuals had the right of summoning such persons in office as they thought they had reason to complain of. There was a privilege of appeal from the decrees of the *audiencia*, to the supreme council of the Indies, at Madrid.

Venezuela includes the *Páramos* of Porquera, Merida, Niquitao, and Las Rosas, with the snow-clad Nevado de Mucuchies. The elevated part of these páramos rise above the limit of vegetation. The valleys, declivities, and table-lands, are very fertile, and yield, in temperate elevations, the grains and fruits of

* Our authorities are the reports of British and French consuls and decrees, reports of the Venezuelan government, the work of M. Lavaysse, Alcedo, Robinson, and various official documents.

Europe, and in the lower parts the tropical productions. Parts of Venezuela, west of the Lake of Maracaybo, are covered with wood; and extensive plains without trees extend over other districts. The highlands of Venezuela, west of the Gulf of Triste, are arid from the want of rains. The higher parts are overgrown with the prickly pear, aloes, and dwarf cedar: the valleys, in which naturally valuable timber trees grow, yield under culture, excellent coffee. The remainder of this high mountain region, is fertile, especially in the valleys. About one-half of the low or alluvial grounds of the Orinoco lie within Venezuela. The eastern portion, or the Llanos de Barcelona, or *Llanos Altos*, are scarcely ever inundated by the floods of the Orinoco, with the exception of narrow alluvial tracts along the banks, and the delta of the low district near the Gulf of Paria and the Rio Guarapiche. These low lands are either covered with wood, or occupied by swamps. The more elevated portion of these Llanos are in parts undulated; in others, extensive plains, interspersed with clumps of trees, predominate. The soil is fertile, and adapted for agricultural purposes. On the plains of Caraccas and Varinas, numerous herds of cattle are pastured. These latter plains are inundated for nearly six months in the year, especially those on the lower river Apuré. The great basin of the Rio Orinoco, is bounded by some portions of the Parime Mountains, which spread over Venezuela from the Andes of Bogotá in a northern direction, then east to the coast opposite the north-west part of Trinidad. This region is little known, with the exception of the large fertile valley of the Rio Caroni. The mountain districts are generally covered with forest. South of the upper course of the Orinoco, where it runs from east to west, on both sides of the caño of Cassiquiare and the River Guainia or Rio Negro, there are level, fertile plains, covered with trees,—but owing to the rains and the unhealthiness of the climate, said to be very thinly inhabited.

THE POPULATION consists of the whites, or descendants of Spaniards, estimated at about 250,000; the Indians, of pure blood, to 150,000; the negroes, who formerly exceeded 60,000 souls, but who have been greatly reduced by the war of independence; and mulattoes, mestizos, and Zamboes. The Indian tribes that inhabit the mountains of Venezuela, and those within the valley of Rio Carony, have been visited; and, as asserted, converted by the missionaries, and are now citizens of the republic; but there are said to be many independent tribes—the Guajiros, on the peninsula of the same name; the Cocinas, west of the Lake of Maracaybo; the Guaraons, inhabitants of the Delta of the Orinoco; and some of the tribes which wander over the Parime Mountains and the districts south of the Orinoco. The converted Indians attend to husbandry for their maintenance. M. Depons calculated the population in 1802 at 728,000; but MM. Lavaysse and Humboldt consider this calculation erroneous, and they estimate the population in 1800 at 900,000, of whom 54,000 were slaves.

According to the report of the minister of the interior for 1841, the population is stated to amount to 887,168; but he does not consider this quite exact.

The citizens of the United States would people a thoroughly new country of equal extent, and riches as Venezuela, with an equal population in less than ten years.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—According to the same report, and one of the secretary of finance, in 1846, the republic is divided into thirteen provinces, viz., CARACCAS, which contains about half the population of the whole state; CARABOBO, BARQUISIMETO, TRUJILLO, MERIDA, BARINAS or VARINAS, CORO MARACAYBO, BARCELONA, GAUYANA, CUMANA, APURE, and MARGARITA. Each of these provinces have governors, or chief administrators, and other functionaries, and each sends *two members to the senate*.

THE GOVERNMENT AND LAWS are lodged in a president and vice-president of the republic; a senate of twenty-six members; a chamber of representatives, at present consisting of fifty-nine members. — (*See Statistics of Venezuela hereafter.*)

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES.

According to M. Von Humboldt and other authorities, there are extensive steppes and deserts—but otherwise this republic is watered, abundantly inundated, and drained by rivers and streams. These appear to be well described by M. de Lavaysse. He says,

“There are nearly 370 marine leagues from the Raudal (cataract) of the Guajaribos, east of the Esmeralda (the nearest point to its sources, which are unknown) to the mouths of the Orinoco.

“The country is intersected in every direction by navigable rivers of various sizes. All those which are eastward of Cape de Paria, the Guarapiche, and the small rivers that flow into the Gulf of Paria excepted, are lost in the Orinoco. Many of its tributaries are more considerable than some distinguished rivers in Europe: the Rio Apuré runs nearly 112 leagues, and is navigable for large vessels for more than sixty leagues from its confluence with the Orinoco. In latitude 7 deg. 32 min. north, it is 4632 fathoms in width, and is not impeded by islands.*

“The Guarapiche presents a very remarkable phenomenon: this river has its source, like all those of New Andalusia, in that part of the Llanos which is denominated Mesa (a platform or plain) de Amana, Mesa de Guanipa, Mesa de Tororo, &c. The mountains that separate the maritime range of Paria from the granitic and amphibolic mountains of the Lower Orinoco, form a ridge very little above the rest of the plain; but this elevation, which is called Mesa, is sufficient to determine the rivers to run northward towards the Gulf of Paria, and to the south into the Orinoco. The Guarapiche rises in the Mesa de Amana, to the south-west of the village of Mathurin: it receives near St. Antonio the Rio Co-

* The leagues of Humboldt and others are the common French league, of scarcely two and a half miles English—not the geographical league of twenty to a degree.

lorado, then the Rio Punceres, and at last the large river Arco, which is called Rio de San Bonifacio, near its source. The Governor Emparan had formed some very useful projects for colonial establishments on the fertile banks of the Arco and Guarapiche. The place where the Arco unites with the Guarapiche, at five leagues from its mouth, is called the Horquetta, a name given by the Spaniards to all junctions of rivers: at that point the Guarapiche has a depth of from forty to fifty fathoms. Previous to 1766, large vessels could have sailed up the Guarapiche to Mathurin: an earthquake has since raised its bed, and now the navigation of the Rio Arco is preferable. The latter is still sixteen fathoms deep as far as Port San Juan, at twenty-five leagues from the sea. I can venture to assert that there is no communication between the Guarapiche and Orinoco: I have never heard it mentioned in all the time I resided in that country, and in which I travelled through it in various directions."

In the map of a work, otherwise estimable (Travels of M. Depons), there is laid down a pretended natural canal, called Morichal, forming a communication between those two rivers above Old Cayenne. M. de Humboldt, who navigated that river, had no knowledge of such communication. The Guarapiche, notwithstanding its depth, and the great body of water it carries to the sea, is only, from its sources in the mountains to its mouth, thirty-three marine leagues in length.

Maracaybo, and the other gulfs, or inlets from the sea, and the Lake Tacarigua, are all remarkable.

The Lake Tacarigua, to which the Spaniards have given the name of Valencia, is situated about fifty leagues west from Caraccas. "It is elevated 1200 feet above the level of the sea, and has almost the shape of an oblong square: its length is thirteen leagues from east to west, and it is two leagues broad in almost its whole extent." "The contrast of the desert and barren mountains of Guigue, with the hills and valleys opposite, ornamented with the most beautiful tropical products, and even the fields of corn and fruit trees of Europe, and the vicinity of the little town of Valencia, agreeably reminds an European of the Lake of Geneva and Vevay. The mountains of Caraccas, it is true, have not the grand appearance of the Alps; but then how much superior the rich, varied, and majestic vegetation which ornaments the borders of the Tacarigua is to the most beautiful natural productions of Europe! I was there in company with a Dane (Mr. West), a man of talents. Whilst we were absorbed in the contemplation of that delightful scene, the native of the north suddenly exclaimed: 'It is here that we should fix our residence for the remainder of our lives: I shall return to Santa Cruz, there collect my property, and come to these charming shores, which shall also be my tomb.'"—*Lavaysse*.

Several small rivers and streams flow into this lake, which has no outlet: by evaporation more water is exhaled from the lake than is carried to it, from which M. de Humboldt explains the formation of the small islands that have been formed in

the lake: at first they were only sand-banks, which by degrees became covered with vegetables. Another cause, similar to that which is observed at Trinidad, has contributed to the formation of these islands; the draining and cultivation of the valleys of the adjacent *Aragoa*. "There is a prodigious difference between the quantity of slime carried off by the rains and torrents in a cultivated, or a savage country: it is known that in the latter the quantity of earth washed away is much less than in the former: if the mountains and valleys which surround the Lake Tacarigua, had not lost their ancient trees and thick turf, perhaps it would have required a thousand years to have formed these small islands in its bed. From time to time new ones are seen to arise. The inhabitants of the neighbourhood have given to them a name that justly characterises them: Las Aparecidas, the new-born islands. A great number of small crocodiles are seen in this lake, which never attack the persons who go there to bathe."—*Ibid.*

The shape of the Lake, or rather Gulf, of Maracaybo, is an oval sea, of about 100 miles in length, by seventy in breadth: this inlet is situated between the lowest part of the mountains of Santa Martha, and near the place where the chain begins, which is detached from the Andes de Bogotá: "it communicates with a gulf of half its size, by a passage of about two leagues broad and eight long: thus this lake forms a little Mediterranean: it receives the tribute of more than twenty rivers, and a great number of rivulets that run down the two ridges of the mountains, between which it is situated. The most considerable are the Subio and the Matacau; for the Souba and the Cuervos, though wide at their mouths, are only creeks fed by torrents, into which the waters of the lake recoil during winter."

The Souba is nearly eight leagues in length, and the Cuervos forms a curve of about fifteen leagues: both of those creeks which branch from Lake Maracaybo are navigable. It is between them and the mountains, that the Guahiros are settled; warlike Indians who have never been subjected by the Spaniards. They extend to the other side of the mountains, along the Rio de la Hache to the borders of the sea.

Though the Lake of Maracaybo is connected, by the flowing and ebbing tide, with the sea, its waters are sweet and fit for drinking; but when the wind blows inwards, with violence, the sea water rushes into the lake, and its water becomes brackish until the wind changes. This lake is not subject to tempests; yet when the north wind is strong, it produces a short and broken swell that sometimes does considerable injury to the smaller craft.

The tide rises higher in this lake than on the adjacent coasts, where it is scarcely perceptible. Mr. Lavaysse says, "it is the same in the Gulf of Paria, and in that of Cariaco, because the tide and wind oppose the water there, which continually runs out. On the north-west shore of the Lake Maracaybo is an extensive mine of asphaltum, of the same nature as that in Trinidad."

CARACCAS, the capital of the republic, and the seat of the legislature and government, is situated in the fruitful valley of Arragon, connected with the vale of the river Tuy, 2822 feet above the sea-level. It is separated from its port La Guayra, which is about sixteen miles distant, by a mountain ridge, the highest part of which on the road is 5160 feet. In this ridge the Silla de Caraccas rises to a summit 8631 feet high. The town is regularly built on a declivity, and has wide streets, which cross at right angles. The climate is healthy. The cathedral was much damaged in 1826 by an earthquake; and the city suffered greatly from one also in 1812. Caraccas has a university, founded in 1778; about 50,000 inhabitants, about the same number as in 1810, when the province contained 496,772 inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade in the products of the adjacent fertile valleys. It has an archbishop.

It was the residence of the captain-general, of the chief of the inquisition, and audiencia, and the ruler of Spain, situated on an unequal surface, the consequent absence of regularity is gained in picturesque effect: many of the houses have terraced roofs, others are covered with tiles; several have only one story, the ground floor; the rest have but one more: they are built either of brick or of earth, and covered with stucco, the architecture is sufficiently solid, handsome, and well adapted to the climate. Many have gardens in their rear. The town, in consequence, is, in extent, equal to an European one, with more than 100,000 inhabitants. Four beautiful streams traverse it, and contribute to its coolness and cleanliness, and give it an animation not experienced in towns deprived of running water. M. Lavaysse says,

"As in some towns of the Alps and Pyrenees, each householder in Caraccas has the invaluable advantage of having in his house a pipe of running and limpid water, which does not prevent all the squares, and almost all the streets from having public fountains. In general there is much luxury and gilding in the decorations of the houses of wealthy persons, and among all, more cleanliness and comfort than in Spain. This town does not possess any public edifice remarkable for its beauty and size, with the exception of the church of Alta Gracia, built at the expense of the people of colour in Caraccas and its vicinity.

"It is divided into five parishes; that of the Cathedral, Alta Gracia, Saint Paolo, Saint Rosalia, and La Candelaria. Three other churches belong to confraternities: Saint Maurice, the Divina Pastora, and the Trinidad. They are solidly built, and richly ornamented in the interior. The cathedral is 250 feet long by seventy-five broad, and its walls are thirty-six feet high; four ranges of stone columns, each containing six, support the roof; the only public clock in the town, was in the steeple of this church.

"This town has five convents, of which three are for men, the Franciscans, Dominicans, and Brothers of the Order of Mercy. The church of the Dominicans has a very curious historical picture: it represents the Virgin Mary *suckling a grey-bearded Saint Dominic*. The following is the account of this miracle, as recounted by the sexton to those who visit the church: St. Dominic having had a violent pain in his breast, and his physician having ordered him woman's milk, the Virgin suddenly descended from heaven, and presented her breast to the saint, who, as it may be supposed, was cured in an instant."

Porto Cavello or Cabello, is situated at a league to the west of Borburata. The latter was at one time the principal port of the colony; but it has been only

a village since the maritime trade was chiefly directed to La Guayra. It is an unhealthy place, yet one which any other government would have easily rendered healthy. There is, however, considerable trade carried on there, and although it was the principal port in the government of Caraccas for the Spanish navy, yet in no other part was there so much contraband trade carried on.

Lavaysse says—

“More than half the produce of the province of Caraccas was carried there, and sold to the smugglers of Curaçoa and Jamaica, who paid for all the produce in British and Dutch merchandise, besides selling annually to the amount of 1,300,000 to 1,400,000 dollars of those merchandises, for which they were paid in specie.”

Porto Cavello is twenty-four leagues from La Guayra, and in 10 deg. 28 min. north latitude, and 69 deg. 10 min. west longitude.

VALENCIA.—This town was founded in 1555 ; it is situated at half a league from the splendid Lake of Tacarigua. Lavaysse remarks,

“That the indigenous names of the mountains, lakes, rivers, &c., are much more harmonious than those which the Europeans have wished to substitute for them : a few of those words, as the aboriginal inhabitants pronounce them, will prove the assertion ; Tacarigua, Maracaybo, Nik-karagoa, Ibirinocco,* Naiagara, Ontario, Amana, &c.”

The population of Valencia was 6500 persons in 1801 ; it increased to more than 10,000 in 1810 ; it is now stated about the latter number.

M. Lavaysse says,—

“The inhabitants are nearly all Creoles, the offspring of ancient Biscayan and Canarian families. There is great industry and comfort in this town. It is as large as an European town of 24,000 to 25,000 souls, because the greater part of the houses have only a ground floor, and many of them have gardens. Fifty years ago (now seventy), its inhabitants passed for the most indolent in the country : they all pretended to descend from the ancient conquerors, and could not conceive how it was possible for them to exercise any other function than the military profession, or cultivate the land, without degrading themselves. Thus they lived in the most abject misery, on a singularly fertile soil. Their ideas have since completely changed ; they have applied themselves to agriculture and commerce, and the grounds in the neighbourhood are now well cultivated.”

Valencia concentrates an inland trade from and with Caraccas and Porto Cavello.

MARACAY is situated at the eastern extremity of Lake Tacarigua.

“It was inhabited,” says Lavaysse, “by a race of men, whose minds were never deranged by the frivolous and noxious pride of birth : almost all the inhabitants of the town, and of the neighbouring country are of Biscayan origin, and therefore, industry, comfort, cleanliness, and good morals are to be found generally throughout this district.”

The grounds around Maracay, are under, principally, plantations of cotton, indigo, coffee, and maize, on the heights the vegetables of the temperate climes of Europe, and wheat, will thrive. Estimated population about 10,000 inhabitants.

TULMARO is situated in one of the valleys which communicates with the val-

* Of which the Spaniards have made Orinoco, Ibirinocco was also the name of the mountains where they supposed the sources of this river were.

ley of Aragoa; it is two leagues from Maracay. This was the residence of the administrators of the tobacco contract. This town is very well built; 8000 inhabitants were calculated as its population in 1807; and about the same number now inhabit it, the plantations of tobacco were from the first cultivated on account of the government.

VITTORIA is situated between Caraccas and Tulmaro, on the side of a village of Caraccas Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries had converted to Christianity. About 125 years ago a great many Spaniards, who established themselves among them either by lawful or clandestine connexions with the native women, became the parents of a numerous and mongrel population.

In 1807, the population in the valleys of Arragon was distributed on 237 plantations, and nearly 2000 houses in towns or villages: it consisted of 24,000 whites, 18,000 mixed blood, 6500 Indians, and 4000 slaves. Total 52,500 persons.

CORO.—The convenient situation of Coro for trading with the neighbouring islands, and particularly with Porto Rico and St. Domingo, caused its site to be chosen for the first settlement which the Spaniards founded on this part of terra firma. The tribe of Indians that inhabited it were called Coriana.

The environs are barren, but at three leagues from the town are hills, valleys, and plains of some fertility. The town is situated on the Isthmus of Paragoana, whose inhabitants lead a pastoral life. In 1822, 10,000 persons of all colours, among whom there were scarcely 200 slaves, form the population of the town. They still hold a considerable trade with Curaçoa in cattle, hides, and indigo, and even in cochineal, which last article comes from the district of Carora.

CARORO is situated inland about fifteen miles east of Maracaybo Lake; called by an Indian name Carora, had with its district in 1822, nearly 10,000 inhabitants; we are ignorant of its present number. Formerly the inhabitants were occupied chiefly collecting a kind of wild cochineal, as fine as the *Misteca*. The soil of the district is arid, but herds of oxen, horses, asses, mules, sheep, and goats, pasture on it, and breed cattle chiefly for tanning the hides. The inhabitants were rather noted as shoemakers, saddlers, weavers, and ropemakers. They make hammocks and packthread of the fibres of the agave *foetida*.

BARQUISIMETO, which gives its name to the province, is situated on a plain. Though in 9 deg. 45 min. of north latitude, it enjoys a very mild climate, and wheat grows in the vicinity. All the tropical productions flourish in the surrounding valleys. The town is well built, and had, with its district, in 1825, a population of about 15,000 inhabitants. "In the parish church," says Lavaysse, "there is a crucifix which has worked a great many miracles, and is at the same time an object of devotion with the people, and an abundant source of revenue to the clergy of the church. In the same town is a convent of rich Franciscan friars, who are esteemed great lovers of good cheer, also an hospital, where the

poor are badly lodged and scantily fed." This town is ninety leagues west from Caraccas, and 100 north of Santa Fe de Bogota.

SAN FELIPE.—Was settled by a great number of Canary Islanders and natives of the neighbouring districts, who were attracted by the fertility of its soil. The inhabitants grow cocoa, coffee, maize, rice, and a little cotton. This district is watered by the rivers Jarani and Arva, and by numerous rivulets. The copper-mines of Arva are in the neighbourhood. Population about 7000.

TOCUYO is built in an elevated valley; its climate is even cold, from the month of November to April, whilst the wind blows from the north. Its district is adapted to all kinds of agriculture, and a great quantity of wheat has been grown around. The wool of the Tocuyo sheep has had a high reputation for blankets and kerseymeres.

GUARARE is situated in a magnificent plain on the banks of a river of the same name, and extends towards the Portuguese River, which is navigable, and falls into the Apure. It was founded in 1593.

The town of San Juan Bautista del Poa, 125 miles south-west of Caraccas, is the centre of a Portuguese district.

SAN CALES was settled by emigrants from the Canary Islands. Banio is near it. *Calaboza*, formerly a village of Indians, has been transformed into a town by the Biscay Company.

In the valley, the towns of Aragua and San Matheo contain each from 6000 to 8000 inhabitants; Araure, 11,000. These towns owe their foundations to the fertility of the districts, and to the pastures of the continuous cattle plains.

"In those times of conquest and anarchy, the Spanish generals, who fought at 2000 leagues distance from their sovereign, acknowledged no other law than that suggested by their strength and caprice. Christopher Cobos, enraged at the scanty force Roxas had put under his command, and at his private intrigues to counteract his success, did homage for his conquest to Rodrigo Nunes Lobo, governor of Cumana, and the metropolitan government approved of the union of the country of the Cumanagotos (the district of Barcelona) with the government of Cumana. From thence it arises, that the governors of Cumana style themselves also governors of Barcelona."—*Lavaysse*.

CUMANA.—According to M. Depons, the population of the town of Cumana was 24,000 persons in 1802. In 1807, according to M. Lavaysse, it amounted to 28,000 and upwards; and at the end of 1810, it had increased to 30,000 inhabitants, almost all industrious and laborious.

Cumana, when visited by M. Lavaysse, had two parish churches and two convents for men; one belonging to the Dominicans, and the other to the Franciscans. It had no magnificent edifice. It rains more rarely at Cumana than at Caraccas.

Bull-feasts, cock-fighting, and rope-dancing, are the amusements most fre-

quented by the inhabitants of this town and the rest of the province. As there was no town clock when M. de Humboldt was there in 1800, he constructed a very fine sun-dial. The Cumanese never fails to say to a stranger who passes it, "We owe this sun-dial to the learned (*sabio*) Baron de Humboldt." The word *sabio*, in the mouth of a Creole of the Spanish colonies, signifies both wise and learned.

The River Manzanares runs through the middle of this town; there is a bridge across it: the water in this river has only sufficient depth for very small vessels. Large ships anchor at the *Placer*, a sand-bank in the middle of the port, which is well sheltered.

Cumana is situated in 10 deg. 37 min. north latitude, and 64 deg. 10 min. west longitude: its climate is very hot, the elevation of the town above the sea level being only fifty-three feet. Fahrenheit's thermometer usually rises to 90 deg., and sometimes even to 95 deg., from the month of June until the end of October. In that season it seldom descends to 80 deg. during the night, but the sea breeze tempers the heat. It is said, however, that the town is healthy. From the commencement of November to the end of March, the heats are not so great; the thermometer is then between 82 deg. and 84 deg. in the day-time, and generally falls to 77 deg. and even 75 deg. during the night. There is scarcely ever any rain in the plain in which Cumana is situated, though it rains frequently in the adjacent mountains.

It is built at the foot of a volcanic mountain, and subject to earthquakes. To the north-east is the Gulf or inlet of Cariaco. Opposite to Cumana, is the Point of Arraya, on which there was once a fort. This gulf is about thirty miles long from east to west, and from eight to ten miles in breadth. The largest ships might ride in it with safety from all weathers.

The Gulf of Cariaco has in all parts good anchorage. On each side the land presents two amphitheatres ornamented with the most beautiful and varied vegetation. At the bottom of the gulf, to the east, is the fine plain of Cariaco, watered by the navigable river of the same name. At a mile and a half from its mouth is the town, or rather the large village of Cariaco, which the Spaniards called San Felipe de Austria.

The population of this place was about 7000 persons in 1807. Until the beginning of the present century, cotton and cocoa-trees only were cultivated, but coffee was afterwards grown, with sugar plantations, and a distillery for rum established. In 1807, the governor, Manuel de Cagigal, endeavoured to prevent the distillation of rum, under the false pretence that it would injure the trade in brandies with Spain; but the true reason was, that the rum trade, one of the English smuggling branches, brought large profits to his excellency.

Innumerable flocks of sea-fowls frequent the Gulf of Cariaco, chiefly on the banks of mud situated on the sides of the entrance to the river.

According to Lavaysse,—

“These birds issue by thousands from the *mangrove trees*, where they pass the night and disperse over the surface of the water to seek their food: when their hunger is satisfied, some repose on the mud and sand-banks; some swim on the water merely for diversion, while others cover the branches of all the neighbouring trees. I have seen a bank of sand above three hundred yards in length, and the little banks or islands near it entirely covered with these aquatic birds. Those I recognised were flamingoes of all ages and colours, pelicans, herons, boobies, five or six kinds of ducks, of which one is larger than that of India, several kinds of water-hens, a bird as white and as large as a swan, but which has a long beak, red and pointed, longer and more delicate legs, and feet formed like those of a swan: it swims like that bird, but flies much better. I also saw in the same spot, many other birds which I am sure have never been described by any naturalist.”

M. Lavaysse describes the manner of catching aquatic birds as singular. The inhabitants of the shores of these lakes and gulfs, scatter calabashes over the water, in order that the birds, by being accustomed to see them, may not be alarmed at the sight. When the Indians wish to catch wild fowl, they go into the water, each with his head covered with a calabash, in which they make two holes to see through. They swim towards the birds, throwing a handful of maize on the water from time to time, the grains soon scatter on the surface. The wild fowl approach to feed on the maize, and the swimmer seizes them by the feet, pulls them under water, and wrings their necks before they can make the least noise to alarm the flocks.

The port of *Carupano* is defended by a battery situated on an eminence. It is described as a healthy place, situated in the opening of two charming valleys, through which flowed two fine rivers.

Lavaysse says in his time,—

“The inhabitants divide their time in the occupations of agriculture, some trading concerns, and dancing. It is completely a dancing town. I have seen very fine youths at the balls of *Carupano*, and many young women, who would be remarkable for their beauty even in our European cities; but they are beauties entirely strangers to the arts of our coquettes; beauties such as nature has made them, and who know no laws than what that unsophisticated deity has given them.”

Population of the district about 7000.

Between *Carupano* and the *Punta de Piedra*, the fertile valley of *Rio Caribe* is crossed, watered by numerous rivulets: it is the *Tempe and Campagna of this country*.

The town and valley of *Rio Caribe* have an estimated population of from 4000 to 5000 persons.

Punta de Piedra, which in 1797, was only a hamlet of fishermen, it became afterwards the principal place in the district of *Paria*, and the residence of a lieutenant-governor. It is situated in a district of prodigious fertility, and near the mouths of the *Guarapiche*, *Orinoco*, and the ports of Spain in *Trinidad*.

The town is situated in a magnificent plain, and on a platform which commands the sea; from whence there is a view of the port of Spain, all the western part of

the island of Trinidad, the Gulf of Paria, and of all the vessels that enter or go out of it.

At the extremity of this plain opens the beautiful and fertile valley of Yaguaraparo, in which are plantations of coffee and cocoa; the fertility of its soil, and its climate particularly appropriated to the latter plant, at one time made the fortunes of most of those established there.*

The valleys, and above all the banks of the rivers of this part of the province of Cumana, abound in logwood and Brazil wood.

CUMANACOA is the chief town of one of the most fertile districts of the province of Cumanacoa. It is situated in a valley of the same name, about forty-five miles inland, to the south-east of Cumana: the air is healthy and tolerably cool. The fruits cultivated there are reputed the best in the province. The population of the town and adjacent country is about five thousand souls. Until sixty years ago, the neighbouring country was inhabited by unconquered Indians, who made frequent incursions against the Spaniards of this quarter, the missionaries have pacified and united them in missions.

Humboldt, who remained at Cumanacoa to make astronomical observations, determined its latitude at 10 deg. 16 min. north, and its longitude at 64 deg. 15 min. west.†

The province of New Barcelona is bounded on the east by the province of Caraccas, on the west by that of Cumana, and on the south by the Orinoco, which separates it from Guayana. It is thinly inhabited and ill-cultivated, but less mountainous than Caraccas and Cumana. On its vast meadows numerous herds of oxen, horses, asses, and mules, feed. The port of Barcelona exported during the peace of Amiens, in one year, 132,000 oxen, 2100 horses, 84,000 mules, 800

* A Catalan sailor settled here in 1790, when the valley was almost a desert; he began alone to fell the woods and plant cocoa trees: in 1797 this man had twenty negroes on his plantation; in 1804 he had thirty slaves, and with this small assistance he gathered more than one hundred thousand pounds weight of cocoa. He died in 1804, intestate, it is said, and the Spanish government took possession of his property.

† At twenty leagues inland, on entering the range of mountains, near that of Turimiquiri, is the famous grotto of Guacharo, in which are millions of a new species of *Caprimulgus*, that fill the cavern with their plaintive and dismal cries. The fat is extracted as an article of commerce. In every country the same causes have produced similar effects on the imagination of our species. The grotto of Guacharo is, in the opinion of the Indians, a place of trial and expiation; souls when separated from bodies go to this cavern; those of men who die without reproach do not remain in it, and immediately ascend to reside with the great Manitou in the dwellings of the blessed; those of the wicked are retained there eternally; and such men as have committed but slight faults of a venial nature, are kept there for a longer or shorter period, according to the crime.

“Immediately after the death of their parents and friends, the Indians go to the entrance of this cavern to listen to their groans. If they think they hear their voices, they also lament, and address a prayer to the great spirit Manitou, and another to the devil Muboya; after which they drown their grief with intoxicating beverages. But if they do not hear the wished-for voices, they express their joy by dances and festivals. In all this there is but one circumstance that creates surprise, it is that the Indian priests have not availed themselves of such credulity to augment their revenues. Many Indians, though otherwise converted to Christianity, have not ceased to believe in Guacharo: and to descend into Guacharo is among them synonymous with dying.”—*Lavaysse.*

asses, 180,000 quintals of tassajo, or smoked beef, 36,000 ox hides, 4500 horse hides, and 6000 deer skins.—(See statistics of Venezuela hereafter.)

BARCELONA is badly built; the houses are of mud, and in general said to be very meanly furnished. The streets are filthy and miry when there is rain, and in dry weather, with even the least wind, the dust is enough to blind one. Alcedo says that the climate of Barcelona is more unhealthy than that of Cumana. It is exactly the reverse: the climate of Cumana is very healthy, though hot, because it is dry, and that of Barcelona unhealthy from the opposite causes. This town had in 1807, a population of 15,000 persons; at present the number is not estimated as having increased.

Barcelona is in 10 deg. 6 min. north latitude, 67 deg. 4 min. west longitude, and thirty miles from Cumana in a direct line: but the windings which it is necessary to make to avoid bad roads, make it a journey of twenty hours. It is reckoned ten marine leagues by sea from the port of Barcelona to that of Cumana; from the former to the latter port there are numerous islets, frequented by fishermen, but they afford no shelter for large vessels.

CONCEPTION DEL PAO is built in a plain situated behind the range of Bergantin; the climate is said to be wholesome, although very hot and subject to heavy rains. It owes this advantage to its elevated situation, from which waters run into the Orinoco and Guarapiche. It is little cultivated, but its pastures feed numerous herds that are exported by the above rivers to Trinidad and Tobago.

There are few countries naturally more varied, fertile, or better watered than the different districts of Cumana. Its mountains on the coast form a magnificent barrier to the sea. On those mountains and hills, gigantic and valuable trees, shrubs, aromatic plants, and flowers grow luxuriantly.

SPANISH GUAYANA, now included within the republic of Venezuela, has for its boundaries, Brazil at San José de Marasitanos to the south, New Granada and the province of Varinas to the west, those of Cumana, Barcelona, and Caraccas on the north, and the British, French, and Dutch Guayana to the east.

The language of the *Marsitan Indians* is as generally disseminated towards the Equator, as the Caribbean tongue is from the banks of the Essequibo to those of the Magdalena.

According to the Spanish historians, Juan Cornepo was the first European who sailed up the Orinoco, in 1531. Sir Walter Raleigh and Robert Dudley visited it afterwards. The chimera of El Dorado also attracted a great number of Spanish adventurers to it.

In 1586, Don Antonio Berreo founded a town, to which he gave the name of *San Tomé*, on the right bank of the Orinoco; but the Indians did not permit him to establish himself long in it. It having been pillaged by the English, Dutch, and French, another town was in 1764 built further from the sea, about 230 miles

from the mouths of the Orinoco. It is known by the name of San Tome de Angostura, but its name in 1846 has been changed to Bolivar.

During the Spanish domination, it was the residence of a governor depending on the captain-general of Caraccas in political and military affairs, and on the intendant of Caraccas for those of finance. It was also the residence of a bishop and chapter. The chapter and its bishop were the poorest ecclesiastics in America.

The other towns or villages in Spanish Guayana are Barceloneta, Santa Rosa de Maruente, and Caicara, which is about 250 leagues westward of San Tomé and San Antonio, forty leagues distant from it. There were also missions dispersed over this province.

The town of *San Tomé de Angostura* had, in 1807, a population of about 8500 persons, among whom were 300 black slaves. This town is tolerably well built but horridly paved. Though situated in 8 deg. 8 min. north latitude, and not much elevated, it is said to be healthy.

It would be very remarkable, if the climate had been inhabited by any other than European race, that Spanish Guayana, which is by far the most fertile region of Venezuela, should be the worst cultivated, the poorest, and least peopled.

M. Lavaysse says,—

“I do not believe there exists a country more wholesome, better watered, more fertile and agreeable to inhabit than that which is situated on one side between the Essequibo and the Caroni, and on the other, between the Caroni and the Orinoco : this tract is more than forty-five leagues from north to south, and seventy leagues from east to west ; yet in its whole extent, it does not form a sixth part of Spanish Guayana !

“If the Jesuits had not founded formerly the missions which are now superintended by the Capuchins, it would still have been covered with forests inhabited by savages and beasts of prey. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000 souls, of whom 15,000 are united in missions. The others, such as the Arrooks and Guaraouns, are independent, and have not embraced Christianity. It is estimated that there are now 8000 whites dispersed in the villages and huts in the remainder of the province, about 6000 Mestizos or free people of colour, and about 3000 slaves.”

The inconvenient position of Angostura is considered by Lavaysse as one of the principal causes of the languishing state of agriculture and trade in this province :—

“It is necessary that there should be a commercial town nearer to the sea ; for the swiftest sailing vessels require fifteen days to sail from the mouths of the river to Angostura. This port becomes worse every day from the sand-banks : there are rocks in that part of the port most convenient for landing merchandise, but these might be easily blown up. The town of Barceloneta, peopled with industrious Catalans, is well placed for becoming a situation of considerable trade.”

Steamboats will, however, obviate all the difficulties and obstacles of the Orinoco. Spanish Guayana is a country almost wild ; the only object of cultivation being a little sugar, cotton, indigo, arnotto, and excellent tobacco.

The oxen, horses, and asses, which were originally transported from Europe, increased greatly in this luxuriant region, so that herds of them became wild in the savannahs and forests.

The wild horses live in societies, generally of 500 or 600, and even a 1000 or more: they breed on immense savannas, where it is dangerous to disturb or attempt to catch them. It is related of these wild horses by Lavaysse and others,—

“In the dry season they are sometimes obliged to go two or three leagues, and even more, to find water. They set out in regular ranks of four abreast, and thus form a procession to the extent of a quarter of a league. There are always five or six scouts, who precede the troop by about fifty paces. If they perceive a man or jaguar (the American tiger), they neigh, and the troop stops. If avoided, they continue their march; but if an attempt be made to pass by their squadron, they leap on the imprudent traveller and crush him under their feet. The best way is always to avoid them, and let them continue their route. They have also a chief, who marches between the scouts and the squadron, and five or six other horses march on each side of the band; a kind of adjutants, whose duty consists of hindering any individual from quitting the ranks. If any one attempts to straggle either from hunger or fatigue, he is bitten till he resumes his place, and the culprit obeys with his head hanging down. Three or four chiefs march at the rear guard, at five or six paces from the troop. What I have just stated is a fact, which I witnessed twice on the banks of the Guarapiche, where I encamped five days for the express purpose of seeing those organised troops pass. I have met on the shores of the Orinoco, herds of fifty to a hundred wild oxen: a chief always marched at the head and another at the rear of these.

“The people of the country have assured me, that the wild asses, when they travel, observe the same discipline as the horses; but the mules, though they also live in troops, are continually fighting with each other, and it has not been observed that they have any chief. They, however, unite at the appearance of a common enemy, and display still more trick and address than the horses in avoiding the snares which are laid for catching them, and also for escaping when taken.”—*Lavaysse*, p. 134.

PROVINCE OF VARINAS.—The town of Varinas had, in 1787, a population of 12,000 inhabitants. According to M. de Humboldt, it is situated in 7 deg. 33 min. of latitude, and 70 deg. 22 min. west longitude, from the meridian of Greenwich. This province has some other towns; San Jayme, containing 7000 souls; San Fernando d' Apure, 6000 souls. M. de Humboldt places San Fernando in 7 deg. 53 min. north latitude, and 70 deg. 20 min. west longitude. Pedraza is situated at the foot of the mountains which separate the plains of Varinas from the province of Maracaybo: this little town had, in 1807, a population of 3000 souls.

Some sugar, coffee, indigo, tobacco, cotton, calico, &c., are cultivated. Cattle and beef are exported.

This province of Varinas is watered by numerous streams, and several navigable rivers which flow into the great Portuguese river, and the Apure, the principal tributary of the Orinoco.

The inhabitants chiefly lead a pastoral life. There are but few aborigines in this province. A few civilised Indians live with the whites and Mestizoes on the pastures. There were nearly 6000 slaves among the population of this province in 1825.

PROVINCE OF MARACAYBO.—The town of Maracaybo, or New Zamora, was, until the beginning of the seventeenth century, the capital of Venezuela.

New Zamora was founded in 1571, by Alonzo Pacheco, four years after the foundation of Caraccas.

Maracaybo is tolerably well built of stone: its climate is considered healthy though hot. In 1807, its estimated population was 25,000 inhabitants, of whom 5000 were slaves.

The Jesuits had a college there, and it was then called the literary town of America; but with that order, their establishments for public instruction also fell.

Next to Maracaybo, the most important town in this province is Merida, founded in 1558 by Juan Rodrigues Suare: this town is the seat of a bishop and chapter; it has also a seminary for young ecclesiastics, and a college. This town is situated between three rivers, which form an island of its district, and discharge themselves into the Lake of Maracaybo. The position of this town near the mountains, renders its temperature very variable.

TRUXILLO was founded in 1520, by Diego de Parades, and once considered the handsomest town in this part of America; it was pillaged and burnt by the pirate Grammont in 1678, who landed eighty leagues from it. All the inhabitants who could not escape, were cut to pieces. There were 12,000 inhabitants in it in 1807. This town is situated among the mountains, and enjoys a very mild temperature. In the valleys of its district are cultivated all tropical productions; and on the hills and elevated situations, wheat, vines, and other articles produced in the temperate regions of Europe. Gibraltar is another little town placed near the lake, and on the shore opposite to the town of Maracaybo: it contains 3000 inhabitants. The population of the province of Maracaybo was, in 1807, 174,000 persons.

ISLAND OF MARGARITA.—The soil of Margarita is arid and unproductive. The pearl fishery attracted numerous adventurers. The Dutch, jealous of its prosperity, burnt and destroyed Pompatar, the principal town, in 1662.

The colony of Margarita was for a long time only a district of the province of Cumana, and governed by a chief who had the title of lieutenant-governor, under the orders of the Governor of Cumana. About sixty years ago the Spanish government erected it into a separate government.

The Island of Margarita has three ports, the most important is that of Pompatar, situated on the south-east coast. It is a capacious and safe basin. There has long been carried on a considerable contraband trade with the English and French colonies, &c., and also with Cumana.

Pueblo de la Mar is an open roadstead, of little trade, situated at a league-and-a-half westward of Pompatar. Pueblo del Norte is a village situated in the northern part of the island: a coral reef renders the entrance to it difficult. Near it is a village inhabited by fishermen.

The valleys of San Juan, Santa Margarita, and Los Robles, have each a village which bears their name. Assoncion is the capital of the island, and the residence of the governor.

The agriculture of the island scarcely suffices for the maintenance of its inhabitants. Maize, cassava, and bananas are grown: the bananas are excellent, but small. The inhabitants cultivate in small proportions, and for their own consumption only, all the productions of the Antilles, the sugar-cane, coffee, and cocoa trees, &c.: they rear goats and sheep.

The climate of Margarita is healthy; the island has only three rivulets, which, however, are sufficiently large to turn mills; their waters are limpid, but the inhabitants prefer drinking water from ponds, though it is always turbid, but said to be more wholesome than rain water.

The fisheries form the principal object at Margarita.

The inhabitants of the towns and villages of Venezuela are generally farmers, who cultivate their lands, or keep flocks and herds in the surrounding countries. Priests, physicians, *escrivanos* (lawyers, who are, at the same time, barristers, notaries, attorneys, and even bailiffs), and needy shopkeepers form the remainder of the population. Mountains, forests and savannahs occupy the intervals that separate the district of a town or village from the neighbouring towns or villages, which are generally twenty to thirty miles or more from each other. Occasionally, usually at about twenty-five miles distance, missions or villages of half civilised Indians.

This republic possesses all the resources of prosperity; and we must admit that its people and its government have acted, since their independence of Spain, with more wisdom than any of the Spanish republics, unless Chili form an exception; but the vast natural resources of a region comprising an area of more than three times that of the United Kingdom, and with less than 1,000,000 inhabitants, requires a great population, intelligence, and wisdom, to realise the prosperity and power of which Venezuela is eminently capable.—(See Statistics of Venezuela hereafter.)

CHAPTER XIII.

THE RIVER ORINOCO AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

ALCEDO denominates this magnificent river the most abundant river of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, and South America, one of the four largest rivers on the continent. It rises in the Sierras Nevadas, to the north of the Lake Parime, in the province of Guayana, according to the discovery made by order of the court by Admiral Don Joseph de Iturriaga, and by the informations received from the Caribes Indians, proving erroneous the origin given to it by the Father Joseph Gumilla, the Jesuit, in his book entitled "*Orinoco Illustrado*," as also the origin

given it by the ex-Jesuit, Coleti, namely, in the province of Mocoa, in latitude 1 deg. 21 min. north. Without being able to prove fully where the source of this river arises, nor even which of the great upper branches constitutes its chief stream, the more recent accounts say its source is the small lake called Ipava, in the Sierra Iberoqueso, in the province of Guayana.

The Orinoco, taking the stream considered its principal branch, is estimated to flow over a course of about 1600 miles, receiving a multitude of tributaries, which swell its waters into vast magnitude.

"The Orinoco," says Alcedo, "bears the name of Iscaute until it passes through the country of the Tames Indians, where it receives by the west side the rivers Papamene and Plasencia, and acquires then the name of that district, which it changes at passing through the settlement of San Juan de Yeima into that of Guayare, and then to that of Barragan, just below where it is entered by the abundant stream of the Meta, and before it is joined by the Cazanare, of equal size. It receives on the north side the rivers Pau, Guaricu, Apuré, Cabiari, Sinaruco, Guabiaris, Irricha, Sna Carlos, and others; and by the south those of Benituari, Amariguaca, Cuchivero, Caura, Aroi, Caroni, Aquiri, Piedras, Vermejo, or Colorado, and others of less note; and being rendered thus formidable with all the above, it at last becomes the Orinoco.

"Its shores and islands are inhabited by many barbarous nations of Indians, some of whom have been reduced to the Catholic faith by the Jesuits, who had founded some flourishing missions, until the year 1767; when, through their expulsion from the Spanish dominions, these Indians passed to the charge of the Capuchin fathers."

According to the same authority, the Orinoco is navigable for more than 200 leagues, about 500 miles for vessels of any size, and for canoes and small craft from its mouth as far as Tunja or San Juan de los Llanos."

We doubt the correctness of this assertion. This river in several parts swarms with alligators. It abounds in fish. The main stream and its tributaries drain fertile countries, and forests of gigantic trees. In these woods and these waters are the wild animals, land birds and water-fowl common to the American tropics. It communicates with the Amazon by the River Negro and the Cessiquiare, which was proved by the discovery made by the Jesuit Father Samuel Roman in 1743.

The Orinoco flows into the ocean by several mouths through a vast alluvial delta, the principal mouth was discovered by Columbus in 1498, and Diego de Ordaz was the first who entered it, he having sailed up it in 1531. "The sounding between Fort San Francisco de la Guayana and the channel of Limon, stated by Alcedo, is sixty-five fathoms deep, as measured in 1734 by the engineer Don Pablo Dias Faxardo, and at the narrowest part it is more than eighty fathoms deep; in addition to which, in the months of August and September, the river is accustomed to rise twenty fathoms at the time of its swelling or overflow, which lasts for five months; and the natives have observed that it rises a yard higher every twenty-five years." The ebbing and flowing of the tide is visible many miles from the sea.

The Orinoco is remarkable for its flood rising and falling once a year only.

It gradually rises during the space of five months—that is, from about the middle of March to September, and then remains for some time stationary. These alternate changes are said to be regular, and even invariable. The height of the flood depends much upon the breadth of the river. In one part where it is narrowest, it rises (as Alcedo has correctly observed) to the astonishing height of 120 feet. Its average rise is from sixty to seventy feet.

The following article, which is translated and abridged from the work of Depons, is, we believe, the most correct description yet given of the mouths of the Orinoco:

“It is presumed that the course of this river, for the first 100 leagues, is north, east, and south. In this part it leaves the imaginary Lake of Parima sixty leagues* from its left bank. The rivers which flow into the Orinoco give it, before it has run these 100 leagues from its source, as rapid a current and as great a body of water as any of the most considerable rivers. From the Esmeraldas to San Fernando de Atabapa, its course is from east to north-east. Between these places is the canal of Casiquiari, which forms the communication between it and the Amazonas, by the River Negro.

“At about 100 miles from the sea, the Orinoco, like the Nile, forms a sort of fan, scattered with a number of little islands, which divide it into several branches and channels, and oblige it to discharge itself through this labyrinth into the sea by an infinite number of mouths, lying north-east and south-west, and extending more than 170 miles. These islands increase so on the coast, that the mouths of the Orinoco are very numerous, but very few of them are navigable. It is computed that these openings amount to near fifty, and only seven of them admit the entrance of vessels, and these must not be of a large burden. An idea of the prudence and skill requisite for the navigation of these mouths, may be formed by what daily happens amongst the Guayanos Indians, who, although born on the islands, and from subsisting solely on fish, are so accustomed to the intricacies of the different channels, yet frequently lose themselves, and are obliged to allow the current to carry them out to sea, and then to re-enter, not without the most minute observations and endeavours to ascertain the proper passage. It even requires considerable skill to find the current; for the numerous channels have such different directions, that in the greater part of them no current at all is perceptible, and in the others the eddies or the winds give the currents a direction up the river instead of down. The compass is frequently of no use, and when a person is once lost, he is often obliged to wander several days among the Guayanos islands, conceiving he is ascending the river when he is descending, or that he is descending when he is ascending; and at length he probably finds himself at the very point from which he set out.

“1. The first of the mouths which are navigable is twenty-five miles south-east of the entrance of the Guarapiche River, and empties its water in the Gulf of Paria. It is called the Great Manamo. The Little Manamo runs in the same channel with it, nearly to the sea, and is navigable for shallops.

“2. The second mouth, Pedernales, is twenty miles north-east of the first. It runs from the east of the Island of Guarisipa, and falls into the sea three leagues south-west of Soldier's Island, which is situated at the south entry of the Gulf of Paria. It is only navigable for canoes, or at the most for shallops.

“3. The third mouth, Capuro, is an arm of the channel of Fadernales, from which it branches off at thirty miles from the sea. Its mouth is in the southernmost part of the Gulf of Paria, thirty-four miles south-east of that of the channel of Padernales. The navigation is hardly fit for any vessels but canoes and shallops.

“4. Macareo, the fourth mouth, enters the sea six leagues south of Capuro, and is the channel of communication between Guayana and Trinidad. It is navigable for mo-

* These are French leagues, of about two and a half geographical miles.

derate-sized vessels, its channel is straight and clear, and it falls into the sea opposite the point and River Erin, in Trinidad.

"5. The fifth mouth is little frequented, on account of the difficulty of the navigation and the ferocity of the Indians inhabiting its banks. They are called Mariusas, and have given their name to this fifth passage of the Orinoco. This mouth is thirty-five miles east-south-east of the fourth.

"Between Mariusas and the sixth mouth are several outlets to the sea, which are navigable with the tide or the floods.

"6. Twenty-five miles more to the south-east is what is called the *Great Mouth of the Orinoco*; it bears the name of Bocca de Navias, Mouth of Shipping, because it is the only one which admits of ships of 200 or 300 tons burden.

"*Navigation of the Orinoco up to St. Thomas.**—The grand mouth of the Orinoco is formed by Cape Barima to south-south-east, which is in 8 deg. 54 min. latitude north, and the Island of Cangrejos, lying west-north-west of the cape. They are twenty-five miles from each other, but the breadth of the navigable part of the passage is not quite three. The depth of water on the bar, which lies a little further out to sea than the cape, is at ebb about seventeen feet.

"Immediately on passing the bar, the depth on the side of the island is four or six fathoms, whilst on the side of the cape it is not more than one and a half fathoms. The flats extend from Cangrejos seven leagues into the sea, but from Cape Barima they do not extend more than two leagues.

"Nearly one league from Barima is a river of the same name, which discharges itself into the Orinoco. The entrance is by a narrow channel one fathom and a half deep. On the same shores, south of the Orinoco, and two leagues higher up than this river, is the mouth of the Amaruco, which crosses a great part of the most easterly territory of Guayana. Shallops can sail ten or fifteen leagues up.

"Three leagues above Cangrejos is the Island of Arenas, which is small, and of a sandy soil. It is from twelve to fifteen feet under water in spring tides. On the south of it is a channel, often altered by the sand shifting. Before ascending half a league, there are two points, called by the Spaniards, Gordas. That on the north side has a flat, which runs out a little, but not enough to obstruct the navigation.

"The south shore of the Orinoco, eight leagues above Barima, the River Araturo

* The following sketches are from the voyage of Robinson up and down the Orinoco and Arauca:—

"Owing to the amazing rapidity of the current, in the Gulf of Paria, we were frequently obliged to come to anchor, to prevent our being drifted entirely out of the gulf.

"On the 15th we encountered a hurricane, accompanied by dreadful thunder, lightning, and torrents of rain. There were a number of passengers on board; and, owing to the smallness of the cabin, not more than eight or ten could get admission, while the remainder, twelve in number, got among the luggage in the hold till the violence of the weather abated.

"Our vessel stood the weather very well; and, on the 18th, at six o'clock, P. M., we entered one of the mouths of the Orinoco. This mouth was about the fifth or sixth to the south of the Macareo, and, although very narrow, was sufficiently deep for vessels drawing ten or twelve feet.

"It was not without some concern that we learned from the master of the vessel, that he had never sailed up this mouth before; and, reflecting on the late massacre of my worthy friend Colonel Macdonald and others, by the wild Indians, I thought the experiment unsafe.

"The thick and impenetrable foliage, of immense height, which crowded every inch of both sides the river, prevented the breeze from reaching our vessel, so that we found it absolutely necessary to warp the ship, or, in other words, dragged it onward, by cords fastened to the trees.

"On the 20th, at six, A. M., while at anchor, a canoe appeared, which had just started from a small creek in the bush, with about twenty men, women, and children in it. About forty canoes followed. They assured us that the mouth we had taken had rarely been passed, on the way to the grand river, before; because it was sometimes infested with banditti of the most blood-thirsty kind, and that it was to prevent depredations by such, that they went in such great numbers.

"These people, of a sort of red colour, are called Guaraunos, and are wholly naked, if we except a little piece of cloth, about six inches square, tied before them. They live in families in canoes. From time to time, especially when the river is low, they live in the bush, and subsist by fishing and hunting.

"We purchased from them, for some rum, straw hammocks, which they call *chinchoro*; reed-

flows in from the south, the source is in the savannahs of the missions. Its mouth is very narrow, but it is navigable for ten leagues.

"Eleven leagues above Barina is the Island of Pagayos, in the middle of the Orinoco, but nearest to its right bank. Its soil is white mud, and at flood-tide it is eleven feet under water. It was formerly much larger than it is at present, and is observed to diminish sensibly. Immediately above the Island of Pagayos, is that of Juncos. It is the most easterly of the Itamaca islands, which extend for a space of eighteen leagues up the Orinoco. They divide the river into two branches; the south branch being called Itamaca, and the north Zacoopana. Both of these are navigable; but the south branch, although the least, has by far the deepest water.

"The east entrance of the Itamaca branch, which is 900 fathoms wide, is formed by the Island of Juncos and Cape Barima Zanica, which juts out from the right bank of the Orinoco. A creek called Carapo, runs from the cape in-shore, and afterwards joins the River Arature.

"A little higher up is the mouth of the River Aguirre. Its source is in the tract of the missions of the Catalanian Capuchins. Its mouth, is very broad, and the depth ten or twelve leagues up from the Orinoco, is three fathoms. As this river does not pass through any cultivated country, its banks are wooded, and the trees on each side are so high, that sails are said to be useless, and vessels ascend and descend with the tide.

"Two leagues from the mouth of this river, in the middle of the Orinoco, is the little island of Venado, and on the south bank of the Orinoco, eight leagues above the Aguirre, is the branch of Caruzina. It proceeds from the Orinoco, behind the mountains, and thence takes its course south-east, thus forming an island. This branch has deep water at its entrance, but a point of the rising grounds of Itamaca nearly obstructs it for half a league. It spreads into an infinite number of branches.

"The River Itamaca joins the Orinoco from the south. Its mouth is narrow, but deep, having from sixteen to eighteen feet of water. A bank in the Orinoco runs across the mouth of the Itamaca, with the exception of a very narrow passage. This river, six miles from its mouth, divides into two branches, the first of which flows from the west, and runs through mountain valleys formed by it; the other flows from the savannah, near the mission of Polomar. The river is navigable up to where it thus branches off, for small craft and boats.

"At the mouth of the channel of the Island of Zacoopana commences a flat, running two leagues to the west, and often filling half of the river. Between this flat and another which proceeds from the Island of Palomas is the passage for vessels. Here the Orinoco, or rather that part of it which discharges itself into the sea by the Bocca de Navias forms only one channel for eight leagues westward. In this space is seen the mouth of a lake, on the south shore, at a little distance from the river. It extends to the foot of the mountain of Piacoa. From the middle of the Orinoco to the south, are seen the mountains of Meri.

"We now come to the chain of little islands which divide the channel of Piacoa from the river. They extend twelve leagues from south to west. On the north bank is the

baskets; parrots, to which they give the name of *loro* in this country; and monkeys, which they call *maraquito*.

"Many of these people are painted all over, and some on particular parts of their body only, with a sort of red nut, called *ruco*. This painting gives their person a singular appearance, while it also prevents the bites of insect vermin, of which there are millions here. Some of them had their heads decorated with a garland of parrots' feathers, others had figures of various shape painted on their body and face. They are well shaped, generally of small stature; yet occasionally we found some most stupendous figures among them. Their face is broad, almost round, their head is covered with long black hair, except over the face, where it is cut right across. It hangs over their breast, shoulders, and back. Their eyes are small; and their shoulders round, from the use of the paddle."

Speaking of flies, mosquitoes, and a sort of wasp, he says:—"In short, it was the occupation of the day to keep these insects from resting on one or other part of the body, by which I was kept in a sort of torture.

"The impenetrable forests, in the Delta, are filled with every kind of vermin that can annoy the body or depress the heart of man."

mouth of the Little Paragoan, from which runs a flat extending to the Great Paragoan. The two channels called Paragoan, unite before falling into the sea.

"Above the Great Paragoan the arm Pedernales branches off towards the coast of Trinidad. The Pedernales afterwards forms the divers channels.

"A league and a half up the river are the Red Bogs. This is the first place where, the Orinoco re-appearing to the north, is seen the Tierra Firma, or land entirely secured from the tides. The passages for vessels is near the two banks, the best is along the north bank. In the middle of the shallows or rather bogs, there is a very narrow channel (Guaritica), by which shallops pass in flood tides, or during the swelling of the river, to a lake, close to it.

"A league higher up is the mouth of the Guarapo channel. During summer it has but very little water, but for several years vessels carried on a contraband trade in mules, oxen, and in productions of Cumana and Venezuela, in exchange for dry goods.

"This channel, excepting at its mouth, is very deep, and admits of the navigation of large vessels, but on account of the high mountain through which it flows, they are obliged to use oars or to be towed. Two leagues above Guarapo, is the Island of Araya, close to the north coast.

"Towards the south coast are seen the cascades of Piacoa, they are formed by three or four ridges which extend from the middle of the channel to the south coast, but there is sufficient water on the north coast for large vessels. On this coast was formerly the mission of Piacoa and the Catalanian Capuchins. Here is excellent pasture, very fertile land, good water, and regular winds.

"After passing the three islands of Arciba, the next is that of Iguana. The river continues navigable on the south side. From the west point of the Island of Iguana, the small mountain of Naparenia is distant one league. It appears to be nothing more than a high rock.

"All this river coast as far as the isles of Iguana and Araya is full of sand-banks.

"From hence is seen the Island of St. Vicente, having a flat on the east part, which crosses the channel unto a little below the site of a former fortress, but which at full tide is of no inconvenience.

"Nearly half a league above Guayana, in the centre of the river, is the large rock of Morocoto, rather nearer the south bank than the north, and is visible in summer, but under water during winter. Not far from this rock is the Island of Mares, and on the south side is the rock of the same name, and another called Hache. The channel north of this island is preferable to that on the other side. Three leagues higher, on the south side, is Point Aramaya, a jutting rock. Opposite this point are the three rocky little islands of San Miguel. During floods they are nearly under water. On the right bank, opposite the village of San Miguel, are two islands, called *Chacarandy*, from the wood with which they are covered; they are divided by only a narrow channel. The Island of Faxardo is in the middle of the river, opposite the mouth of the River Caroni. On the right bank, and a league above this island, is the Island of Torno. It is separated from the main land by a small channel, and on the west point there are rocks, and a flat running to five leagues.

"Point Cardinal is on the south side of the island, three leagues above Faxardo. Nearly a quarter of a league from this point is a chain of rocks stretching to opposite Gurampo. During winter but one of these is visible, but in summer three are discernible opposite Gurampo. There is a port formed by Point Cardinal called Patacon. Gurampo is a number of rocks lying five leagues above the Island of Faxardo, on the north coast. These rocks form a port bearing the same name. A shallow runs from this port nearly north and south, on the east, Point Cardinal, and having on the west extremity three rocks, under water in winter. The Island of Taguache lies half a league from Gurampo, on the left bank. It is one league and a half from east to west.

"On the opposite side of the river is the Island of Zeiba, four leagues long, and more than one league broad. The channel separating it from the main land has very little water, excepting in the winter. Between the main land to the north and the Island of Taguache, there is a channel navigable at all seasons.

"The River Cucazana on the east point has a flat, running a little to the west, and oc-

cupying half of the river. At the mouth is the island of the same name, which nearly joins that of Taguache. It has also a flat on the west point which is in many places visible during summer.

"The Mamo channel has at its mouth a flat reaching nearly to the middle of the river, and seven leagues below the capital is another, lying north and south with the Island of Mamo, and having from the month of January to April only eight feet water. Vessels are obliged to be lightened in order to pass, which is the case with another channel which forms the Island of Mamo.

"After this bar is passed, are numerous rocks on the shore and in the middle of the river. The Currucay points are jutting rocks, and lie three leagues above Port St. Anne. Nearly opposite these points, in the middle of the river, is a large rock named La Pierre du Rosaire. Between this and the coast there are several others. To the north of the Pierre du Rosaire is a very narrow channel between the rocks lying under water. Vessels run great risks in summer, and in winter the current is so violent that if the wind dies away, they are in danger of being wrecked against the Pierre du Rosaire. A league above this is a point of rocks on the north shore, and some distance from this are three ridges near each other, and bearing south of the east point of the Island of Panapana.

"The Island of Panapana is a league above point Des Lapins, separated from the south shore by a channel moderately wide, but very shallow in summer. At the east and west points there are flats with very little water on them. That of the west point ascends more than a league, and inclines always to the south. Between this island, which is one league and a half long, and the north coast is the principal channel of the Orinoco. It is rather narrow and of little depth, except during the inundation.

"Two leagues higher up is the narrowest part of the Orinoco, called by the Spaniards *Angostura*. Two rocks north and south form this strait. A little higher up, and nearly in the centre, is a large rock called *Lavadero*, or Washing-place, visible only in summer. Between this and the south coast there is a little island of stones, opposite which the River Maruanta discharges itself. Point Tinco to the north, and Point Nicasio to the south are also formed of rocks.

"St. Thomas de Angostura, the capital of Spanish Guayana, is the next place. It is situate at the foot of a small hill on the right bank of the river. There is a fort now—in 1846—called Bolivar, on the opposite side. This place was called Port Raphael, and is the thoroughfare of communication between Guayana and the province of Venezuela and Cumana. Between Port St. Raphael and the city there is an island called *Del Medio*, from being in the centre of the river. It is a rock under water in winter, but the north side is dry during summer. The principal channel is between this island and the city. It is at ebb tide about 200 feet broad, and about fifty more at flood.

"It is to be observed, that from the junction of the River Apure with the Orinoco to Angostura, the distance is estimated by Alcedo at eighty leagues, or about 200 miles. In all this space no other important river falls into the Orinoco on the south save the Caura and Caupasia. From its source it receives almost all its tributaries from the left shore, and from the Apure it receives many which open to it from thence to Guayana all the commerce of the southern plains. The navigation of all the upper part of the Orinoco is among islands which obstruct the channel, and which throw its bed sometimes to the right bank and sometimes to the left; filled with rocks of all sizes and heights, of which some are even with the water, and others at a depth more or less according to the season. It is also subject to squalls, and cannot be navigated but by good pilots.

"The banks of the Orinoco are frequently bordered by forests of majestic trees, among which are birds of the most beautiful plumage. Various species of monkeys are seen crying, leaping, and gamboling. In other parts the view extends over plains with excellent pasture, and often extending twenty or thirty leagues."

Mr. de Humboldt observes,

"That the mouth of the Amazonas is much more extended than that of the Orinoco, but the latter river is of equal consideration with respect to the volume of water which it has in the interior of the continent, for at 200 leagues from the sea, it has a bed of from 2500 to 3000 fathoms, without the interruption of a single isle. Its

breadth before Angostura is 3850 fathoms, and its depth, at the same place, according to the measurement made by order of the king in 1734, in the month of March, the season when its waters are at the lowest, was 65 fathoms.

"This river, like the Nile and others, has an annual swell. This commences regularly in April and ends in August. All the month of September it remains with the vast body of water it has acquired the five preceding months, and presents a spectacle astonishingly grand. With this increase of water it enlarges, as it were, its natural limits, making encroachments of from twenty to thirty leagues on the land. The rise of the river is, opposite to St. Thomas, thirty fathoms, but it is greater in proportion to the proximity to the sea; it is perceptible at 350 leagues from its mouth, and never varies more than one fathom. It is pretended in the country, that there is every twenty-five years a periodical extraordinary rise of an additional fathom. The beginning of October the water begins to fall, leaving imperceptibly the plains, exposing in its bed a multitude of rocks and islands. By the end of February it is at its lowest ebb, continuing so till the commencement of April. During this interval the tortoises deposit themselves on the places recently exposed, but which are still very humid; it is then that the action of the sun soon develops in the egg the principles of fecundity. The Indians resort from all parts with their families, in order to lay in a stock of food, drying the tortoises and extracting an oil from their eggs, which they either make use of for themselves or sell. The water of the Orinoco is potable, and even some medicinal virtues are attributed to it.

"The Orinoco abounds in fish of various descriptions, but these, although they bear the same name as the fishes of Europe, are found not to correspond precisely with them in their nature or quality."—*Alcedo*.

In Mr. Robinson's account of a voyage up the Orinoco it is stated that,

"In this river there is an immense quantity of fish, especially when full. They are even so plentiful that there is a singular practice adopted by the boys for catching them. They tie three or four fish-hooks close together, pointing different ways, and without bait, they attach these and throw them into the river, from which they immediately pull them by sudden jerks, and thus they very frequently hook a fish, sometimes by one, sometimes by another part of the body.

"The alligators here are often very large and very plentiful. It is by no means uncommon for these monsters to come close in shore among the bathers (and bathing is, I think, used almost to excess among the people here) and carry one or more of them off. About this time, while walking on my terrace, I saw a little female child carried off by one of them.

"Bathers are often annoyed by another kind of fish, called the carabee, which is not so easily kept at a distance as the alligator. This monster is not large; but it has a mouth very capacious for its size. It fastens its teeth on any part of the body, which it often wholly removes, and generally leaves an ill-conditioned ulcer, which is very difficult to heal.

"It is a curious fact, that almost all the fish in this river are provided with natural instruments of defence or attack:—their nose, their teeth, their fins, or their tail, are the usual seat of these; and while many of them inflict a simple wound only, others cause excessive pain and inflammation."

The vast and fertile regions drained by the Orinoco and its many tributaries may be considered as still in a wilderness state. The small town of Angostura, or Bolivar, and the other small towns and villages on this river and its tributaries, are few in number. An Anglo-Saxon race, by the aid of steam-power would in a few years bring forth almost unbounded riches from the soil, pastures, and forests which extend along the numerous rivers flowing into the Orinoco, from the Andes of Santa Fé,—from the north and western parts of New Granada, and from the vicinity of many parts of the Amazon.—(For the Finances, Agriculture, Manufactures and Trade, see Statistics of Venezuela hereafter.)

CHAPTER XIV.

GUAYANA.

GUAYANA, or Guiana, comprehended originally the countries which border on the Atlantic Ocean between the mouths of the Amazon and Orinoco, and extending inland to an undefined distance.

FRENCH GUAYANA, or Cayenne, extends from the River Oyapoc, which separates it from Brazil, along the coast as far west as the River Marony, for about 200 miles. Inland to the Sierra Acaray; but as the situation of that range is very imperfectly known, the inland boundary is not determined; consequently, the area of French Guayana is conjectural, when it is computed at about 20,000 square miles. It may be much greater. The mountains in some parts approach within a few miles of the sea: and the rivers, among which the Oyapoc, the Organabo, and the Marony are the largest, are said to be obstructed by falls and rapids. The climate is deemed unhealthy, but its insalubrity must only be considered to pervade the swamps and low tracts between the mountains and the shores. The plantations are chiefly on the Island Cayenne, at the mouth of the river of that name: there are some on the neighbouring coast, and on the banks of the Organabo: the remainder of the country is generally in a wilderness state. Sugar, cotton, annatto, cloves, coffee, pepper, maize, &c., are raised. The French transplanted pepper, clove, and nutmeg trees from the Indian Archipelago, the first are said to thrive well. In 1834 the population consisted of not more than 22,000 individuals, of whom three-fourths were slaves. The aborigines cultivate small patches of ground, but gain their subsistence principally by fishing and hunting.

CAYENNE, the capital, is built on the northern side of the island of that name, and has a population of about 5000 souls. It exports the produce of the country, which in 1834 amounted to somewhat more than 80,000*l*. In the same year forty vessels (4374 tons) entered the harbour, and forty-four vessels (5032 tons) cleared out. (For an account of its subsequent Trade, *see* French Colonies Trade hereafter.)

DUTCH GUAYANA, or Surinam, extends along the sea-coast, between the River Marony on the east and the River Corentyn on the west. All Guayana, English, French, and Dutch, is assumed to extend to the sources of these two rivers, which rise probably in the Sierra Acaray, but scarcely any thing is known of the country south of 4 deg. north lat. The coast-line of Dutch Guayana extends in its windings, about 250 miles; and area of this country is variously estimated at from 38,000 to about 50,000 square miles. Along the sea-coast, to the distance of eight to fifteen miles inland, the country is flat, and little elevated above

the sea. The soil is dry, sandy, and impregnated with salt, yet adapted to the cultivation of cotton. At the back of this low tract the country rises higher, and spreads into savannas, covered with grass, and here and there with bushes and trees. Along the rivers for from half a mile to two miles the country is, where uncultivated, covered with large trees; this soil is chiefly an alluvial, black fertile mould, and chiefly cultivated as sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton, and cacao plantations. About forty miles from the shores the country rises to a higher elevation, and the region between the rivers consists of rocky soils chiefly covered with trees. The rivers Marony, Surinam, Saramaca, and Corentyn are navigable to near the foot of the mountains, except where for some little distance some rapids or cataracts occur. The Surinam is navigable for large ships for about thirty miles from its entrance. The climate is unhealthy during the rainy season between June and August.

POPULATION.—The population consists of whites, negroes, mulattoes, and aboriginal tribes. The whites amount to about 17,000, and the negroes and mixed race to about 66,000. The number of maroons and Indians are unknown. In the mountains, and in some districts farther north, there are maroons, or runaway negroes, who formerly used to attack the settlements. The most numerous aboriginal tribes are the Arawaak and the Caribs. They live mostly on the produce of the mandioc, plantain, and maize plantations. Among the whites there is a considerable number of Jews, some of whom cultivate plantations in a separate district. The country was first settled by some Englishmen in 1634, but in 1667 the English settlements were given up to the Dutch. In 1808 the English got possession of Surinam, but restored it to the Dutch by the peace of Paris in 1814.

PARAMARIBO, the capital, is situated on the western bank of the River Surinam, eighteen miles from its mouth. It is regularly built in the Dutch style, with wide and straight streets, which are planted with orange trees. The houses in general are two stories high, and built of wood. Near to it, on the northern side, is the fortress of Zelandia, in which the governor resides. The population amounts to about 20,000 souls, three-fifths of which are negroes, or coloured people. They carry on a trade with Holland, to which they send the products of the country. The number of vessels employed in this trade in 1825 amounted to seventy-one, and the value of their cargoes exceeded 500,000*l*. Since that period the colony has not, according to the official reports, advanced in prosperity. The average quantity of sugar exported has amounted to about 25,000 tons, and of coffee to about 4,000,000 lbs.

BRITISH GUAYANA, the area of which is estimated at 76,000 square miles, lies between 1 deg. and 8 deg. 40 min. north latitude, and between 57 deg. and 61 deg. west longitude. It has a coast-line of more than 400 miles, running south-east and north-west: extending from the River Corentyne westward to the mouth of the

River Orinoco. Neither the western nor southern limits have been defined; and extensive districts are claimed either by Venezuela or by Brazil, and some by both governments. The western boundary-line, as claimed by the British government, extends from Point Barima, at the eastern embouchure of the Orinoco, nearly in a straight line southward to the River Cuyuny at its junction with the River Aruarua; it follows the course of the last river to its source in the mountain-range which divides the affluents of the Orinoco from those of the Essequibo, and then runs along the crest of these mountains to the source of the River Cotinga, or Xaruma; along which river it continues to its confluence with the Rio Tocoto, an affluent of the Rio Branco, which falls into the Rio Negro of Brazil. The River Tocoto then forms the boundary up to its source; and farther south it follows the mountain-range, between the Essequibo, to the sources of the Essequibo in the Sierra Acaray.

From the shores of British Guayana shallows, and in parts, muddy banks, extend from five to fifteen miles seaward, they are in parts dry, in others covered with not more than from three to four feet water. They render the approach even in small craft frequently impracticable, and extend in shoals at the mouths of the rivers. The shores are low, and on a level with the sea at high water. The soil is chiefly an alluvium of blue clay, impregnated with marine and vegetable matter. When these soils are drained and cultivated, they sink about a foot below the level of the sea; and require careful attention to the embankments and sluices. This fertile soil extends from two to eight miles inland. At the back of many of the settlements are swamps, of blackish vegetable matter: sometimes six or eight feet deep. Between the River Corentyn and the Demerara the low land of the coast is generally in the front of savannas, intersected by fertile, and generally well wooded tracts along the streams.

A range of sandy hills, from thirty to 120 feet above the level plain, crosses the country from south-east to north-west. An elevated mountain range separates the streams of the Carony, a tributary of the Orinoco, from those of the Mazarony, a branch of the Essequibo.

The explorations of Mr. Schomburgk, in order to make boundary surveys through the interior since 1837, have unfolded to us magnificent regions of rivers, mountains, plains, and forests of gigantic trees, during his last expedition. He completed the circuit of the colony from its sea boundary to within forty-two miles of the equator in the space of nearly three years.

He left Georgetown in February, ascended the Essequibo, and reached Pirara on the 24th of March. He and his fellow travellers, on the 30th of April, departed at a period when the rains had swollen the Rupununi to such a height, that they ascended this river further than any large craft had ever done—the Wapisians declared they had never beheld such canoes.

At Watu Ticaba they experienced some difficulty in procuring Indians from

the left bank of the Rupununi as carriers of the baggage and provisions. On the 4th of June they continued their route, and leaving the savannahs, entered the magnificent forests of the interior, over the mountain chain, and over undulating ground, interspersed with Manica swamps, abounding in a species of cocoa (*theo broma*), which the Indians gathered, as the pulpy arillus surrounding the seed has an agreeable vinous taste. The seed possesses a most delicious aroma. Mr. Schomburgk states they evinced astonishment when they saw him collecting these seeds and preparing them into a dish of chocolate, which he declares was the most delicious they ever tasted. These indigenous cocoa trees, Mr. Schomburgk informs us, they met with in innumerable thousands on this (5th of June) and the following day; and he adds, that these inexhaustible stores of a highly-prized luxury are here reaped solely by the wild hog, the aguri, monkeys, and the rats of the interior.

On the 8th of June the party reached a settlement of Taruma Indians, near the River Cuyuwini. In this neighbourhood Mr. Schomburgk had sojourned on his expedition in 1837. The site of the settlement, however, was changed to somewhat nearer the river. "Many of the inhabitants whom I saw on the former occasion," he says, "were dead, but nothing struck me more mournfully than the ravages death had committed amongst the Atorais—the immediate neighbours of the Tarumas—since my former visit; at that time the settlement consisted of 200 souls, which number was now reduced to less than thirty. The small-pox and the measles have done their worst among these people."

Here the travellers prepared their woodskins or bark canoes; with which, descending the Cuyuwini, they again entered the Upper Essequibo on the 21st of June. After several days' journey above the point of confluence of these two rivers, they arrived at two settlements of the Taruma Indians, where they sojourned some days, in order to afford time to inform the Maopityan Indians of their intended visit. In this locality Mr. Schomburgk found a variety of the bean tribe (the *leguminosæ*) which possesses a root, or underground tuber, that grows to an enormous size, fully equal to the largest yam. These roots were not at the time in full perfection, but their taste was somewhat between the yam and the sweet potato. The Taruma Indians called them Cùyùpá. Mr. Schomburgk thought that, if it were possible to transplant these roots to the coast regions, they would be a most valuable addition to the list of native esculents. The roots are considered fit for use when the herb above-ground dies. A few of the seeds Mr. Schomburgk brought with him.

At the mouth of the Urana the travellers abandoned their woodskins. This river debouches into the Essequibo in about 1 deg. 37 min. north latitude. They continued their course landward, traversing a chain of hills, and on the 13th of July reached the sources of the Onororo, a tributary to the Essequibo; and, ascending an elevation of about 100 feet higher than the origin of the first river,

the sources of the Caphiwin or Apiniau, the head waters of the large river Trombetas (which afterwards amplifies itself opposite Phauxis, or Obedos, into the Amazon), were attained. The chain of hills here, about 2000 feet high, divides the rivers which flow southward into the Amazon, and those which were northward and westward in the Essequibo.

A few miles from this spot they came to a Maopityan village. In this place were two houses of singular construction—the larger was of unusually ample dimensions—it was in diameter eighty-six feet. They were covered in by two roofs, like pagodas, one roof being over the other, and between these the smoke found its way from the house. The party was received by the Indians, and then entered the larger edifice, “which then encompassed,” says Mr. Schomburgk, “the remains of the once powerful tribe of Maopityans, or Mawackwas.”

The village was nearly destitute of provisions, and the Indians were grinding rotten wood with the little cassava flour they possessed, in order to increase the quantity of bread baked from it. The travellers then proceeded for the territory of the Pianaghotto and Drio Indians, at the head of the Curtini or Curuwini River which Mr. Schomburgk suspected to be the Corentyne. This portion of the journey appears to have been very perilous. The Caphiwin—abounded in falls, some from forty to fifty feet in perpendicular height; and in a distance of sixty miles they descended 305 feet.

On the 29th of July they arrived at the confluence of the Caphiwin with the Wanamu, both of equal size, whose united streams form a river, called by the natives of those regions the Kaphu. The travellers had been now eleven days from their last starting point, and were informed by a family of Zoramata Indians, whom they found preparing a new provision field, that they would have to ascend the Wanama eight days more, before they could find an Indian settlement. This family was so poor, that they could not even give a plantain.

“The banks of the Kaphu River,” says Mr. Schomburgk, “are inhabited by the Tshikianas Indians; and eastward is the territory of the formidable tribe of Maipurishanas (Tapir) Indians. These are described by the other Indian tribes as cannibals. “But,” says our traveller, “of those warlike women, the Amazons, or Cunhapuyara Indians, no specific information could be procured. Our present journey appears to have chased them from their last hold—the upper Rio das Trombitas. Herrera and Acunna inform us that Orellana, while landing his troops at the mouth of the River Cunuriz—the present Trombetes—was attacked by Indians, among whom he observed women fighting at their sides; and as neither Brazilian nor European was ever able to ascend that river, the abode of the republic of women was planted near its sources. We felt almost regret to dispel the last hopes of seeing the romantic accounts realised, which Indians and Europeans alike have spread of the Amazons.”

The travellers ascending the Wanamu on the 5th of August, Mr. Schomburgk's boat was in advance, and turning round an angle of the river, two canoes with Indians were discovered advancing to them. They fled in the utmost dismay. The remainder of Mr. Schomburgk's journey is a record of fatigue, hunger, and difficulty, ascending and descending rivers, until the 24th of September, when they fortunately discovered the path leading from the River Corentyne to the Essequibo; and on the 13th of October, after suffering incredible privations, arrived at Georgetown.

RIVERS.—The Essequibo has numerous rapids, or falls, in the upper part of its course. Fifty miles from its mouth, and about ten miles south of its confluence with the Cuyuny, are the lowest rapids, above which the tide does not ascend. The Demerara River breaks over a great cataract. Several miles are rapids. The tide ascends within about ten miles of these rapids. In the River Berbice cataracts occur, up to which, a distance of 165 miles from the sea, along the windings, the river can be navigated by vessels drawing seven feet water. Vessels drawing not more than twelve feet may sail up 105 miles. The Corentyne is navigable from the mouth of the River Cabalaba for boats not drawing more than seven feet water, a distance of 150 miles from its mouth. In other parts it is obstructed by dangerous cataracts. Mr. Schomburgk considers the upper Corentyne the most perilous of all rivers to navigate; falls succeed falls, and he had frequently to lade and unlade the canoes several times in one day.

The River Rupunoony traverses the savannas south of the Pacaraima Mountains, and falls into the Essequibo, through the savannas, near the base of the Pacaraima Mountains. It is said to have no impediments to navigation.

CLIMATE.—Guayana has two dry and two wet seasons. On the sea-coast the long dry season begins about the end of August and lasts to the end of November. It is followed by the short rainy season, from November to the middle of February. Then by the short dry season, which continues to the middle of April, and is succeeded by the long rainy season, during which the rivers inundate the low lands. The greatest heat occurs during the long dry season, when the mean temperature is about 83 deg., but it is moderated by cooling sea-breezes; and during the night the thermometer sometimes falls to 74 deg. During the great rains the mean temperature is about 81 deg., and the heat oppressive when not moderated by the breezes. During the short dry and wet season the mean temperature is a little above 80 deg. The mean annual temperature is nearly 81·2 deg. The change of the seasons is attended by violent thunder-storms. The climate is considered tolerably healthy, except during the rains. South of the mountain-region two seasons only are said to occur. From the month of August to that of March there are only occasional showers; but from March to August the rain falls in torrents.

Guayana is highly favoured by climate and soil for the growth of every tropical product. The cultivation has been chiefly limited to sugar, coffee, and cotton; and to yams, cassava, plantains, bananas, sweet potatoes, maize, &c. The pine-apple, guava, the marmalade fruit, the delicious Anona, the sapodilla, and the Brazil and Suwarrow nuts, are indigenous. The cabbage-tree is common, and there are several varieties of palms. The forest contains many kinds of excellent timber-trees, among which the mora (*Mimosa excelsa*) is said to be equal to the teak of the East Indies, and the green heart (belonging to the family of the *Laurineæ*), the sawary (*Pekea tuberculosa*), the bully-tree (*Achras balata*), the sirwabally, crab-wood (*Carapa Guianensis*), and purple-heart, are adapted for naval architecture and cabinet-work, &c. There are also many fibrous vegetables, which afford substitutes for hemp and flax.—*Schomburgh*.

LIVE STOCK.—The domestic animals are horses, mules, hogs, goats, and fowls. The rearing of black cattle is neglected; as they are more cheaply imported from the Orinoco districts of Venezuela; butter and cheese are also great articles of import; but herds of black cattle and horses graze on the savannas near the Pacaraima Mountains. Among the wild animals are the jaguar, armadillo, agouti, ant-bear, sloth, a great variety of monkeys, iguanas, alligators, and turtles. In the Essequibo and its affluents there are several kinds of large fish. Among the birds are several kinds of parrots, mackaws, and humming-birds, the flamingo, Muscovy duck, toucan, and spoonbill. Snakes are numerous, among which are the rattle-snake and the boa-constrictor.

Traces of iron-ore are discerned; no other metals have yet been found.

INHABITANTS.—The population of British Guayana is composed of aboriginal tribes and of foreign settlers: Dutch, English, Europeans, Africans, a number of Coolies, and the descendants of Europeans and officers.

By the census of the united colonies of Demerara and Essequibo, taken in 1829, the population consisted of 3006 whites, 6360 free coloured people, and 69,368 slaves. By the last census of the population of Berbice, taken in 1833, there were 570 whites, 1661 free coloured people, and 19,320 slaves. It is estimated that at present the whole population consists of 82,824 negroes, 8076 people of mixed race, and 4000 whites, to which the number of emigrants, since 1829 is to be added, which amounts to about 3100 individuals. The emigrants are partly whites from England and Malta, and partly Coolies.

British Guayana, as now constituted, consists of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. The settlements consist of plantations along the sea-coast and extending up the rivers. Some few are found on the banks of the rivers a considerable distance from the sea, chiefly for cutting timber.—(*See the Statistics of the British American Possessions hereafter.*)

GEORGETOWN, formerly called Stabroek, the capital, is built on the east

bank of the River Demerara, which is here nearly a mile wide. The harbour, formed by the mouth of the river is safe, but not of easy access, as a bar of mud extends four miles out to sea, over which no vessel, drawing more than nine feet, can pass until half-flood; the channel along the eastern shore has nineteen feet depth at high water. The streets of the town are wide and traversed by canals; the houses are of wood, and seldom above two stories high; they are generally surrounded by a garden, or trees, and separated from each other by canals or trenches. The public building, which comprises all the public offices, is a large edifice. There are churches for the principal denominations of Christians, and public schools. The population is estimated at more than 20,000 souls, of which 16,000 are coloured people.

NEW AMSTERDAM, on the Berbice, extends about a mile and a half along the river, and is intersected by canals. The harbour is good, but intricate in its access. In the mouth of the river is Crab Island, which divides the river into two navigable channels, of which the eastern has seventeen to twenty feet, in depth, and the western only eight to thirteen feet at high water; a bar also lies across the mouth of the river, over which there are only seven feet depth of water at low tides. In 1833 the population amounted to 2900 persons. It exports the produce of plantations on the rivers Berbice and Corentyne.

Guayana was discovered by Columbus on his third voyage, 1498, when he reached the mouth of the Orinoco. The first settlement was formed by the Dutch in 1580 on the River Pomaroon, and called New Zealand, whence they spread eastward to the Essequibo and Demerara, but the progress of the colony was slow. In 1781 it was taken by Sir George Rodney, but it was restored to the Dutch in 1783. In 1796 it surrendered to the English, and was again restored to the Dutch by the peace of Amiens (1801). It was taken for the last time by the British, in 1803, and has since remained in their possession. In 1831, the colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, were united into one colony, named British Guayana, and in 1838 the slaves were emancipated.

GOVERNMENT.—The administration and legislature consist of the governor, the chief justice, attorney-general, the collector of the customs, and colonial secretary, to whom are added an equal number of persons elected from the colonists, by the college of the electors, or *kiezers*. This college consists of seven members, elected by the inhabitants of the colony for life. When a vacancy occurs in this colonial legislature, the college of *kiezers* nominates two candidates, of whom the colonial parliament selects one as a sitting member. The members are elected by the *kiezers* to serve for three years, and go out by rotation. Every member of this legislative body has a vote, and the governor has a casting vote. He has also an absolute veto on all laws and ordinances which have been passed by a majority.

(For the Agriculture, Navigation, and Trade see Statistics of the British Possessions hereafter.)

CHAPTER XV.

REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR.

ECUADOR extends from about 1 deg. 40 min. north latitude, to 5 deg. 50 min. south latitude, along the Pacific from the River Mira, south to the Rio Tumbez, for about 510 miles; and from some point not well defined between 69 deg. or nearly 70 deg. west, to 81 deg. 20 min. west longitude, or about 830 miles. Its boundary lines are very irregularly and very indistinctly defined, except on the Pacific, where it embraces the Gulf of Guayaquil, and several bays, headlands, and some roadsteads and seaports. This state claims as its boundary on the south with Peru, the River Tumbez up to its source in the Andes, and thence south-easterly along these mountains to the Rio Chinchupe, following the latter to its junction with the Rio Amazon south of San Juan de Bracamoros; Ecuador has from thence a boundary between it and Bolivia, or Upper Peru, the Rio Amazon, as far as its boundary of Brazil, from which it is separated by a line beginning on the south side of the Amazon, from in about 69 deg. west longitude, and thence northward to the Rio Negro, which forms the separation on the north, between Ecuador and New Granada, and west from the Rio Negro to the Rio Mira until the latter flows into the Pacific.

The equatorial Andes, the hilly country between those mountains and the Pacific, and the great plateaux between the mountain range on the east boundary of Brazil are comprised within the republic of Ecuador, the area of which is vaguely estimated at about 320,000 square miles. These magnificent regions comprise every variety of configuration and scenery. Wooded declivities, rocky and naked precipices, great rivers, mountain torrents, elevated plains; with a soil and climate producing under the equator, the grains and fruits of Europe, while the lower plains yield the cane and tropical plants, and the elevated declivities afford extensive pasture. The valleys of the Rio Guayaquil and Daüli have plantations of cacao, and various other crops are or may be cultivated. The remainder of this region is less cultivated. Savannas occur in some extensive districts, and others are covered with lofty trees. In the regions from whence the rivers Guainia and Uaupes flow, mountains rising to moderate elevations prevail, and the country is chiefly wooded; savannas occur also near the foot of the Andes. Heavy rain, lakes, and stagnant pools, render many parts of Ecuador unhealthy.

The Amazon is descended on rafts or balsas from the mouth of the Rio Chunchunga; it becomes navigable for vessels below the Pongo of Manseriche, at St. Borja, for which vessels not drawing more than six or seven feet of water may as-

ceed : large vessels ascend as far as the mouth of the Rio Tigre. The tributaries of the Amazon which drain the plains, are navigable, some in a greater, others to a lesser extent. These are chiefly the Rio Santiago, which falls above the Pongo de Manseriche, the Marona, the Pastaza, the Tigre, the Napo, the Putumayo, the Yapurá. The Napo is as yet the only affluent much navigated. The navigation of the Yapurá is said to be obstructed by a cataract. The Guainia and its affluent the Uaupes, rise within Ecuadór; but these rivers are but little known. The Rio Guayaquil, the Rio Baba, and the Rio Daüli, by which produce is brought down to the port of Guayaquil, the Rio Esmeraldas, the Rio Santiago, and the Rio Mira, are all to some extent navigable.

Along the sea-coast, from the Gulf of Guayaquil to the Cape of St. Lorenzo, rain is said never to occur. The valleys of the rivers Daüli and Guayaquil have regular rainy and dry seasons. In the mountain-region, the climate is temperate during the whole year; some rain falls almost daily. The plains suffer from excessive rain and heat.*

In the western region of Ecuador, Indian corn, plantains, yams,[†] cacao, tobacco, sugar, cotton, and different kinds of tropical fruit and vegetables are cultivated. From the elevated valleys and plains of the mountain-region wheat is sent down to Guayaquil and other low districts. Towards the southern extremity of the Andes there are extensive forests; the cinchona bark-tree is common. The Great Plains yield wax, gum, resin, and sarsaparilla. In the mountain-region and plains, cattle in large herds, horses, mules, and sheep are pastured. Turtles are abundant in the Amazon; their fat, under the name of *manteca*, constitutes an important article of traffic on the banks of that river. The fish called *manta* abounds on the shores of the Pacific. It is salted and sent to Guayaquil and the mountain-region for sale. Pearls were formerly fished. Some cochineal is collected near Loxa. Vessels are built at Guayaquil of the timber yielded by the western forests.

Gold is found in some of the rivers, silver ore occurs, but neither in any great quantity. Lead ore and quicksilver are found in some places. At Lo-Azoges quicksilver is worked. Salt is made along the coast at Cape Santa Helena, where it constitutes an article of trade for internal consumption.

INHABITANTS.—The population consists of the descendants of the Spaniards, and of Indians, and Mestizoes. The number of negroes has always been very small in Ecuador. The whites are most numerous in the valleys of the Andes, and in those of the rivers Guayaquil and Daüli, but in no part do they constitute more than one-fourth of the whole population. In the western region and in the mountains, the aborigines are of the Peruvian race, and speak the Quichua lan-

* Other accounts of the climate of the Ecuador differ. Dr. Smith gives a more favourable description of it, and says the sea-coast region is, in most parts, a fertile, verdant country.

guage. They are agriculturists, and employ themselves also in weaving coarse woollen and cotton stuffs. Along the coast many Indian families live by fishing and making salt. The Indians who inhabit the Great Plains, gain their subsistence almost exclusively by hunting and fishing on the banks of the tributary of the Amazon : they cultivate small pieces of ground. Abundance of sulphur may be procured at Tescan, near Chimborazo.

According to the census of 1827, the population of Ecuador amounted to about 492,000, exclusive of the Indians of the eastern plains.

ESTIMATED population of Ecuador.

DEPARTMENT.	Area in Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants to a Square Mile.
	number.	number.	number.
Chimborazo, or Ecuador.....	190,000	190,000	1
Guayaquil.....	25,000	150,000	nearly 5
Assuay	105,070	210,000	2
Total	320,000	550,000	

The department of Chimborazo is divided into four provinces, Pichincha, Chimborazo, Atacàmes, and Quixos. The province of Pichincha contains the Vale of Quito; and the province of Chimborazo that of Hambato and Alausi. The province of Atacàmes extends over the lower country west of the Andes, between the Rio Mira and Cape Passado; and that of Quixos over the plains east of the mountain-mass as far south as the Rio Napo. The navigable rivers Yapurà, Putumayo, and Napo, which fall into the Amazon; the Rio Esmeraldas, Santiago, and Mira, which flow into the Pacific, drain this department. The following are the principal places—IBARRA, at the foot of the volcano of Imbabura, 7572 feet above the sea-level: about 8000 inhabitants, who manufacture coarse stuffs of cotton and wool. Wheat is raised in the neighbourhood: the sugar-cane succeeds well; but of the latter, no great quantity is produced. OTAVALO has, it is estimated, 20,000 inhabitants, who manufacture woollen and cotton stuffs. QUITO, the capital of the republic, situated in a valley, which unites two plains of moderate extent, 9543 feet above the sea-level, near the foot of the volcano of Pichincha. Eleven snow-capped mountains are in view of this town. It is in parts regularly built, with wide and straight streets, and contains many handsome buildings, as the president's palace, formerly that of the viceroy, the palace of the archbishop, the cathedral, and the town-hall.

The buildings, as is generally the case in Spanish America, surround the *Plaza Mayor*. There is an university, an extensive building, formerly the college of Jesuits. Quito is said to contain a population of 50,000 souls, and has some manufactures of cotton, silk, leather, lace, and jewellery.

TACUNGA, situated near the southern declivity of the Alto de Chisinche, and near large ruins of a palace of the Incas: 3000 inhabitants.

LACTACUNGA, situated at the foot of the eastern ridge of the Andes, 9524 feet above the sea-level, and built of pumice-stone, has about 10,000 inhabitants.

HAMBATO, near the foot of the Chimborazo, 8859 feet above the sea, is situated in a wheat country, 12,000 inhabitants; the only frequented road from the mountain region to the coast of the Pacific passes through this town to Guayaquil.

Along the coast of the Pacific there are no large towns. Coasters find shelter in the harbours of Tumaco, Tola, Esmeraldas, Atacámes, and Canoa; these places have no foreign trade. The Missionos of Baeza, Archidonia, and Avila, east of the Andes, are now said to be deserted, although formerly described as very populous. Santa Rosa de Oas, situated upon the Rio Napo, where that river begins to be navigable; has a small population.

The department of Guayaquil comprises the southern country, between the Andes and the Pacific, including the fertile valleys of the Guayaquil and Dañli. It is divided into the provinces of Manabi and Guayaquil. The products are cacao, tobacco, cotton, maize, various tropical fruits, &c. Guayaquil, the capital, is situated on the right bank of the Guayaquil, about forty miles from its mouth; and large vessels ascend to the town; the rise of the tide at full and change is said to be about twenty-four feet. The town is built on low ground, fronting the river for about two miles; estimated population, 25,000 inhabitants. It supplies the settlement of the mountain coast with wine, brandy, and the sugars of Peru and Chile, and with European merchandise. These goods are carried by water to the head of river navigation, at Babahoyo or Caracol. From the head of navigation, merchandise is carried by the route of Guaranda and Hambato to the mountain valleys. In the vicinity of Guayaquil timber trees abound, of which vessels are built. Morro and Santa Helena have harbours, which are seldom visited. At Santa Helena sea-salt is made. At the island of Puna vessels take on board cargoes.

The Galapago islands, about 700 miles from the continent, between 1 deg 40 min. south latitude, and 40 min. north latitude, are dependent on the department of Guayaquil.

The department of Assuay, includes the mountain region south of the valley of Cuença, the mountains of Loxa, the high country eastward to the Pongo de Manseriche, and most part of the plains between the River Napo on the north, and the Amazon on the south. Westward, the department extends to the south-eastern part of the Gulf of Guayaquil. It is divided into the provinces of Cuença, Loxa, and St. Jaen de Bracamoros. The Santiago, Marona, Pastaza, Tigre, and Napo, tributaries of the Amazon, flow through and drain this region. The cinchona bark tree abounds in the mountain forests east of Loxa, rising at an elevation of from 6000 to 8000 feet. There are silver mines, but not extensively worked. There are also quicksilver mines, Los Azogus. Cuença, the capital of the department, and an university city, is situated in a plain 8640 feet above the sea,

and contains a population of 20,000. Loxa, is 6768 feet above the sea, with 10,000 inhabitants, and has a trade in cinchona bark. St. Jaen de Bracamoros, near the banks of the Marañon, contains about 2000 inhabitants. Zaruma, situated on the western declivity of the Andes, in a mining district; 6000 inhabitants. Tumbez is situated near the Bay of Guayaquil. It has some trade. We must observe that all the foregoing statements, as to population, are based upon estimates made in the country, but which we consider no more than vague computations, given semi-officially by the authorities.

The manufactures of Ecuador are described as more important than those of any other of the South American republics. Coarse woollen and cotton stuffs are woven at many places in the elevated valleys. The inhabitants of coasts prefer English goods. There are manufactures also of silk, and some tanneries. But all these fabrics are produced at a much higher cost there, and are generally inferior to imported manufactures.

There are three roads or routes from the interior valleys to the Pacific, one from Hambato to Guayaquil, one from Quito to Esmeraldas, and one from Cuença to Naranjal. The first is the most travelled over. By the last the cinchona bark and the produce of the mines are brought to Guayaquil. Three routes lead to the eastern plains, but they are very little travelled over. Formerly the elevated valleys received European goods, principally by way of Cartagena and Popayán; from Guayaquil gold, silver, cinchona bark, tobacco, and some other articles are exported.

ECUADOR, which once formed part of the empire of the Incas, remained from the conquest under Spanish rule, until the revolution broke out in the Spanish colonies of South America. In 1811, Ecuador formed part of the vice-royalty of New Granada. In 1823 it adopted the convention of Cúcuta, and until 1831 it formed a part of the republic of Columbia. Since the dissolution of that union, it has formed itself into an independent republic. Governed by a president, chosen for eight years, and assisted by a vice-president and council of state. The legislature consists of two bodies, the senate, to which every province sends a member; and the house of representatives, the number of which varies according to the population, a member being elected for every 40,000 inhabitants.—(*See Statistics of the Spanish Republics hereafter.*)

CHAPTER XVI.

PERU.—GENERAL SKETCHES OF THE SOIL AND CLIMATE.

THE limits of the present republic of Peru extends from the mouth of the River Loa, (21 deg. 28 min. south latitude) to the entrance of the Tumbez in 3 deg. 30 min. 40 sec. south latitude. Its extreme length along the shores of the

Pacific is estimated at nearly 1700 miles. The greatest breadth is estimated at more than 1000 miles.

It is bounded by Ecuador on the north, on the west by the Pacific, on the south and south-east by Bolivia, on the east by Brazil. The southern and south-eastern boundaries are not, however, well decided.

Peru extends from the western declivity of the Bolivian and Peruvian Andes to the shores of the Pacific. This region is called the *Valles*. East of the *Valles* the *Montaña*, or mountain-region, comprehends the Peruvian Andes. Along the eastern side of the *Montaña* is the great upper plain of the Amazon.

The region of the *VALLES* has little or no wood, and includes but small districts fit for culture. Sandy or stony deserts prevail. In the mountain region, a large portion is rocky; the numerous valleys which intersect the mountains from south to north are generally fertile, especially the valley of the Rio Jauja. The eastern mountain region is covered with forests and other vegetable growth; the western mountains are nearly bare, and frequently without any vegetation. The eastern plains are cultivated only in small spots by the native tribes, who grow roots and maize; the greater part of these places are covered with forests. Savannas of considerable extent occupy parts of these plains, but these regions are but imperfectly known to us.

The whole sea-coast region of Peru is by all described as sandy, arid, bare, and scorched. The sea-coasts of the state of Ecuador are, on the contrary, described as well-wooded plains and villages.

Peru is traversed by two parallel chains of high mountains, called indifferently the Andes and the Cordilleras. Geographers may, to avoid confusion, give the name of Andes to the eastern, and Cordilleras to the western, chain. The western range follows the shores of the Pacific at a distance of sixty or seventy English miles. It is remarkable that all the streams flowing from its eastern slopes find their way through the chain of the Andes to the Atlantic. In all South America there is no exception to this rule. In no instance do the Cordilleras afford passage to any stream flowing from the Andes,—yet the former chain is lower than the latter, at least in Peru and Bolivia. The region between the Andes and the Cordilleras, comprising a vast *plateau*, or rather many table-lands, about 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. This *plateau* is scarcely inhabited. The whole region is called by the natives *Puna*, in Spanish *despolbado*. The general aspect of this plain is monotonous and dreary, the surface is principally covered with faded dull grasses; now and then a solitary stunted tree of the *quenua*, tracts covered with the reddish brown stalks of the *ratana*, which the few inhabitants use for fuel, or for roofing their huts. But here are found the llama, the alpaca, the huanacu, and the vicuna. Cold winds sweep from the frozen Cordillera over the plain, regularly accompanied for four months with daily violent snow-storms. Von Tschudi who resided in Peru from 1838 to 1842, inclusive, says,

"It often happens that the traveller passes suddenly out of these cold winds into very warm currents of air, which are sometimes two or three feet, oftener several hundred feet wide, and occur in parallel lines at repeated intervals, so that one may pass through five or six of them in the course of a few hours. I found them particularly frequent in the months of August and September in the highland plains between Chacapalpa and Huancavelica. As far as my repeated observations extend, the general direction of these currents is the same as that of the Cordillera, namely, south-south-west and north-north-east. My course once led me for several hours longitudinally through one of these warm streams of air which was not more than twenty-seven paces wide. Its temperature was 11 deg. R. higher than that of the contiguous atmosphere. It appears that these streams are not merely temporary, for the arrieros often predict with great accuracy where they will be encountered; nor are they to be confounded with the warm air of narrow rocky ravines, since they extend over the open plain. The cause of this curious phenomena is well deserving of minute inquiry by meteorologists."

Puna is also applied as a term to the effects which the rarified air of the plateau produces on the body and spirits; other names for which are "sorroche," "marreo," and "veta." These effects, experienced usually at an elevation of 12,500 feet and upwards, are difficulty of respiration, dizziness, palpitation of the heart, extreme lassitude and weakness of the limbs. The vessels of the eyes, nose, and lips often burst, and blood issues from them in drops. The mucous membranes of the lungs and bowels are affected, and sometimes accompanied by fatal hæmoptysis, and bloody diarrhœa. Dr. Tschudi seems to think that there must be some other unknown condition of climate at work besides rarefaction of the air, and it does so happen that regions abounding in *ore* are ill-famed for the *veta*. Men and other animals born in the mountains suffer little from the attack, strangers become acclimated to it; but some domestic animals, particularly cats, cannot live at an elevation of 1300 feet. Water, it is said, boils at so low a temperature in the high regions, that potatoes and meat cannot be cooked in less than twenty-four hours' boiling.

We extract the following from Tschudi's recent valuable work, which describes one day's travelling in the horrid Puna region through the deep snow that had fallen overnight:—

"I rode along a sorry track up the gentle declivity, often being compelled to make wide detours round rocks or swamps, which I could not pass over. The latter are particularly irksome to the traveller, for he loses much time in going round them, and if he attempts to pass through them he is every moment in danger of being swallowed up with his beast, or if less unlucky he may leave the floundering animal to its fate, and pursue his way on foot. After the lapse of several hours, the sun at last dispersed the mist, the snow disappeared in a few minutes, and I looked round on the lonely landscape with renewed vigour. I had reached a height of nearly 14,000 feet above the sea. On both sides of me rose the peaks of the Cordillera clothed in eternal ice, with single gigantic pyramids towering to the heavens. Behind me lay, deep and deeper, the obscure valleys of the lower mountain regions, with their scarcely discernible Indian villages, and stretching far away until they blended with the horizon. Before me lay the immense billowy extent of the upland plains, here and there broken by long low craggy ranges of hills. It seemed to me as if Nature breathed out her last breath in these lonely snow-fields of the Cordillera. Here Life and Death meet together, and wage their everlasting warfare; and how might the conflict end for me, for my lot too was involved in the issue? I could not tell.

"How little life had the sun awakened all round me, where the dull green puna

grass, hardly a finger high, blended with the greenish glaciers! Glad was I to greet the purple gentiana, the brown calceolaria, and other old acquaintances of the vegetable world. Not a butterfly hovered yet in the thin atmosphere, not a fly or winged insect; at most the busy naturalist might find a dusky beetle under a stone—a rare prize. Here and there the low tortoise crept out of its hole, or a half-starved lizard lay on a stone warming its lithe limbs in the sun. As I rode further, living creatures met my view in more abundance, beasts and birds, few in species, but individually numerous. Amazing is the wealth of animal life in these mountain plains. The vital exuberance of the tropics seem to triumph all over the bleak cold of the Puna, and the scorching sunshine of the Llanos; there the first fall of rain, here the first glimpse of the sun, calls it forth with astonishing quickness. The blank monotony of the region had almost disappeared. Herds of *vicuñas* approached me inquisitively, and fled away again with the speed of the wind. In the distance I saw quiet stately groups of *huanacus*, gazing suspiciously on me and passing along; single roes started up from their rocky lairs, and rushed up the slopes with loud brayings; the curious horned puna-hart (*tarush*) came slowly out of its hole, and stared at me with its great black, wondering eyes, whilst the lively rock-hares (*viscachas*) sported familiarly, and nibbled the scanty herbage that grew in the clefts of the rocks.

“I had plodded on for many hours, observing the varieties of life in this singular alpine region, when I came upon the carcass of a mule, which had probably fallen under its burden, and been left by its driver to perish of hunger and cold. My presence startled three ravenous condors from their repast. Shaking their crowned heads, and darting fiery glances at me from their blood-shot eyes, two of them rose on their giant wings, and hovered threateningly, in ever-narrowing circles, round my head, whilst the third, croaking furiously, stood on the defensive near the booty. Holding my gun in readiness, I rode cautiously by the critical spot, without the least desire of further disturbing the banquet. It was now two o'clock in the afternoon, and I had been riding on a continual, though gradual, ascent since dawn. My panting mule slackened his pace, and halted from time to time, and seemed unwilling to climb a height that rose before me; I alighted to relieve the animal and my own limbs at the same time, and began to walk up the hill; but I immediately experienced the effects of the rarefied air, and I felt at every step an uneasy sensation I had never known before. I was obliged to stop for breath, but I could hardly respire; I tried to move, but was overcome by an indescribable oppression; my heart beat audibly against my ribs; my breathing was short and interrupted, a world's load seemed to be on my breast; my lips were blue, tumid, and cracked, and the blood oozed from the swollen vessels of my eye-lids. My senses were leaving me; I could neither see, nor hear, nor feel distinctly; a gray mist floated before my eyes, tinged at times with red, when the blood gathered on my eye-lids. I felt myself involved in that conflict between life and death, which I had before imagined in surrounding nature; my brain reeled, and I was compelled to lie down. Had all the riches of the world, or the glories of eternity, been but a hundred feet higher, I could not have stretched out my hand towards them.

“A heavy fall of snow came on, accompanied with an icy wind, and in less than half-an-hour the ground was everywhere covered with snow a foot deep. Swamp and hill, dale and crag, seemed now one undistinguishable surface; all trace of my path was lost, and my position was growing worse every moment. Had I then been as well acquainted with the Puna as I afterwards became, I would have shaped my course by the flight of birds, but unluckily I followed the fresh track of a herd of *vicuñas* which was lost in a swamp. I discovered this too late; my mule had suddenly sunk in so deeply that it could not scramble out; in great trepidation I alighted cautiously, and with incredible difficulty contrived to dig out the legs of my beast with my dagger. After wandering up and down in all directions, I at last found the path, which was marked by skeletons protruding above the level of the snow. They were the remains of beasts that had fallen under their load—a welcome and yet ominous token for the lonely wanderer! The clouds were now suddenly rent, and the blazing light of the tropical sun was reflected from the dazzling surface of snow. My eyes were instantly smitten with *surumpe* (ophthalmia); they began to smart violently, and it was only with a handkerchief before

my face I was able to pursue my way, tormented with the apprehension of chronic ophthalmia, or of total blindness.

"Half an hour afterwards the scene was repeated over again—thunder, lightning, wind, and snow, then sunshine, then storm again. I continued my route with extreme difficulty, the mule hardly able to drag its limbs through the accumulated snow. Night was coming on; exhausted with cold, hunger, and fatigue, I could scarcely hold the bridle, and my feet were insensible, though partly protected by the broad wooden stirrups. I had almost given myself up for lost, when I observed a cave beneath an overhanging rock. I hastened to explore it, and found it would afford me some shelter from the wind. I unsaddled the mule, tied it to a stone, spread my cloak and trappings for a bed on the damp ground, and appeased my hunger with a little roasted maize and cheese. I then lay down, but was long kept awake by the piercing clamours of the night birds. At last I slept, but was again awakened by an intolerable burning and smarting in the eyes; the lids were glued together with coagulated blood. There was no hope of sleep or rest, and I thought the night would never end. When I reckoned that day must be dawning I opened my smarting eyes, and discovered all the horrid misery of my situation. A frozen human corpse had served for my pillow. Shuddering, I went in search of my mule to quit the dismal spot, but my distresses were not yet at an end. The poor beast lay dead on the ground; in its ravenous hunger it had eaten the poisonous garbancillo. Poor creature! Many a hardship had it shared with me. I turned back to the cave in despair; what could I do? At last the sun shone brightly, the snow was gone; I felt my spirits wonderfully revived, and began to inspect the body of my lifeless companion. Was it one of my own race, a traveller who had perished of cold and hunger? No, it was a half-caste Indian, and many deadly wounds in the head showed that he had been killed by the slings of Indian robbers, who had stripped him naked, and hid him in the cave.

"I seized my gun and shot a rock hare, gathered a little fuel, and using a bone for a spit, I roasted the flesh, and made a not very savoury breakfast. I then waited quietly to see what might befall. It was about noon when I heard at intervals a monotonous short cry, and starting to my feet at the well-known sound, I ascended the nearest rock, and perceived the two Indian llama drivers I had seen the day before. I prevailed on them by means of a small present of tobacco, to let me have one of their llamas to carry my baggage. I cast a handful of earth on the corpse of the murdered man, and left the unlucky spot."

Rivers.—The small rivers that flow into the Pacific are chiefly used for irrigating lands; none of them are navigable, except the Rio de Piura, for some months, about twenty miles, as far as the town of Piura. Many of the rivers are dried up for several months of the year; a few flow to the Pauba, the others to the eastern waters. The mountain rocks have some streams which might supply irrigation, and even the most arid districts yield luxuriantly when watered.

The Montaña is drained by the Marañon, and its affluents the Huallaga and Ucayali. The Marañon is navigable from the mouth of the Rio Chuchunga downwards. No obstacle to navigation occurs below the Pongo for vessels drawing no more than six to seven feet of water, as far up as the junction of the Ucayali it may be, ascended by larger vessels.

The Lake of Parinacochas, which has no outlet, is surrounded by high mountains: and its surface is said to be 10,000 feet above the level of the sea: the water is brackish. The Lake of Titicaca occupies an area of about 4000 square miles; from it the Rio Desaguadero, flows south-south-east, in gentle course

and it is lost in swamps and lakes, about 19 deg. south latitude. The Lake of Titicaca is 12,795 feet above the sea-level, and the valley, on an average, 13,000 feet. The length of the valley is about 300 miles ; its breadth varies from thirty to sixty miles. Its area is estimated at 16,000 square miles, the lake included. Several passes lead from the valley to the low countries on the east and west, and traverse the two chains of the Bolivian Andes. The average elevation of these mountain passes is about 14,600 feet above the sea-level, or 1600 feet above the level of the valley.

The climate of this valley is not subject to great varieties of temperature ; neither great heat nor cold are experienced ; except during the nights from May to November, when ice is formed. The winter is dry, the sky is cloudless, there is neither rain nor snow. Snow falls at the beginning and end of summer or the rainy season, which commences at the end of November and terminates in April. During the summer it rains, not heavily, but almost constantly, during the day ; at night the sky is cloudless. Even in February the thermometer never rises above 60 deg ; and in July it descends only during the night to 28 deg. The whole valley has but little wood ; as a substitute the natives use the rushes which grow along the banks of the lake. This valley chiefly presents a beautiful green turf. Some parts are under cultivation ; rye and barley are sown, but as they do not ripen, are cut green as fodder for beasts of burden. Quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa*) and potatoes are grown.

The Lake of Chinhaicocha, or Reyes, which receives the streams descending from the table land of Pasco, and from which the Rio Jauja issues, is about thirty miles long, with an average width of five miles ; contains several islands. The Lake of Llauricocha is considered the source of the Marañon. Little is known of this lake.

Administrative Divisions.—The department of Truxillo is divided into the provinces of Caxamarca, Chachapóyas, Chóta, Maynas, Piura, Jáen, Lambayeque, Huamacucho, and Patás. The products of those are, rice, sugar, cinchona-bark, sarsaparilla, copaiva balsam, dragon's blood ; bullion, the product of the silver mines, and various fruits and vegetables. Payta, with about 5000 inhabitants in the valleys, has a tolerable harbour, and some trade ; Piura, with about 8000 inhabitants and some manufactures ; Lambayeque, with about 10,000 inhabitants, an open roadstead, carries on some trade ; Chiclayo, about three miles from Lambayeque, with about 8000 inhabitants ; Truxillo, the capital of the department, built in a fertile plain, contains about 9000 inhabitants, has some trade, though its harbour (Huanchaco) is an ill-sheltered roadstead. Caxamarca, in the valley of the Marañon, has about 7000 inhabitants, and some manufactures of woollen cloth and hardware. It is situated in a plain 370 feet above the sea, and in the vicinity of mines, and not far from the mines of Gualgayo. Chachapoyas, with about 4000 inhabitants, is a trading town

on the road from the vale of the Marañon to the Huallaga. Moyobambo, with about 5000, and Tarapoto, with about 4000 inhabitants, have fabrics of coarse cotton stuffs.

The department of Junin is divided into the provinces of Huari, Caxatambo, Huaylas, Conchucos, Pasco, Huamalies, Huanaco, Tarma, and Jauja. The products are, silver from the mines of Pasco and other places; sugar, Indian corn, rice, cinchona bark; the rock-salt from the banks of the Huallaga. Pasco, or Cerro de Pasco, is situated on the table-land which bears its name, at an elevation of 14,278 feet above the sea, and contains a population of between 12,000 and 16,000 souls. North of Huari, in the upper vale of the Marañon, Caxatambo has about 6000 inhabitants in the vicinity of silver-mines; Huanaco, in the upper vale of the Rio Huallaga, is situated in a fertile country, and has about 9000 inhabitants. It is about twenty leagues from Cerro de Pasco, with a descent of about 7000 feet. In its fertile valley are produced maize, wheat, beans, potatoes, &c.* Tarma, in the upper vale of the Rio de Jauja, is the capital of the department, has 6000 inhabitants, and some cotton and woollen manufactures.

Tarma is described by Dr. Smith as "the favourite place of resort of sickly persons from different parts, especially Lima, and the rigorous climate at the mineral works of Yauli, whence the rheumatic miners, after their own hot springs fail to cure them, flock to the Estrada, or to the ball and tertulia of the blooming Tarmenians. All its peaceful inhabitants are agriculturists; and mostly all the resident families emigrate during harvest-time to little farms in the vicinity of this pretty Cerrano town, which is considered one of the most agreeable and civilised in all the sierra, and wherein the better classes, even as in the provincial towns on the coast, desire to adopt the manners of the capital as their standard. Near Tarma is a beautiful cascade, and many peach and apple orchards, with lanes lined with poplars, and perfumed with wild mint and many sweet and fragrant flowers in the wet season, when its hills are verdant, its air pure, and its people joyful."

* Dr. Smith, describing the Valley of Huanuco, says,—“But the plains that spread round the base of the hills and mountains that go to form the Vale of Huanuco, are never allowed to take upon them the withered face of winter. By the aid of rivulets from the mountains, sometimes diverted from their natural channels by art, and carried, by circuitous aqueducts of many miles in extent, the numerous flats among the recesses of the heights and slopes, frequently elevated much above the lower plains, are kept ever verdant and productive, in like manner as the fields and enclosures in the bottom of the vale are fertilised by canals from the river. The best sugar-cane comes to maturity in about eighteen months or two years, and yields several cuttings of after-growth. The lucern or alfalfa, without the aid of top-dressing, gives six crops annually for an indefinite number of years; and in some favoured spots it yields a cutting in six weeks, and therefore gives eight crops yearly. The writer had a plot that yielded, at this rate, alfalfa of about a yard in height, and in good flower. The plantain, the richest tuna, or Indian fig, grow in abundance; the finest pine-apples are brought from the neighbouring Montaña, where vegetation is much more rapid and vigorous than in the Vale of Huanuco. In this vale, however, the palta and cheremoya mellow on the branches in their native soil. The maguey, coffee, cotton, and vine, the pomegranate and orange, the citron, lemon, and lime, &c., flourish here; and the meanest villager, as well as the humblest lodger under a cane-roofed shed, inhales with every breath the odours of never-failing blossoms. As the morning sun gilds the high ridges of this happy valley, its inhabitants are animated to the daily labours of the field by the cheerful voice of the pretty-plumaged inmates of their well-shaded bowers. The city of Huanuco is the principal seat of recreation for him who wastes his strength and frets his temper in the too often delusive pursuit of wealth in Cerro Pasco, and other inclement mining localities in the neighbourhood.”

The department of Lima is divided into the provinces of Cercado or Lima, Chancáy, Canta, Huaura, Huarochirí, Yauchos, Canete, and Ica. The products are chiefly maize, sugar, wine, brandy, tobacco, and salt is made.

The department of AYACUCHO is divided into the provinces of Huancabelica, Lucánas, Tayacája, Castroviréyna, Parinacochas, Guamanga, Guanta Congallo, Anco, and Andaguailas. The products are chiefly silver and quicksilver, cattle, horses, and mules. Some maize and sugar are cultivated in some of the lower districts. The capital, Guamanga, built on the declivity of some mountains, has about 26,000 inhabitants, a cathedral, a university, and an ecclesiastical seminary. It is situated on the road from Lima to Cuzco. A few miles east-north-east of Guamanga, on the plain of Ayacucho, General Sucre terminated the Spanish dominion over South America by a decisive victory. Huancabelica, west of Guamanga, has mines of gold, silver, and quicksilver: the quicksilver mines were formerly very rich. It contains about 8000 inhabitants.

The department of Cuzco is divided into the provinces of Cercado or Cuzco, Quispichanchi, Urubamba, Abancay, Aymaraes, Cotabambas, Chumbivilcas, Paruro, Calca, Paucartambo, and Tinta: the great majority of the population are of Aboriginal race. Woollen and cotton stuffs, and leather, are manufactured by them. Cuzco, the capital of the department, originally said to have been built by Manco Capac, the founder of the empire of the Incas, is situated in a broad valley, about 11,250 feet above the surface of the sea. It contains several ancient ruins. The population, about 40,000, manufacture wool and cotton stuffs, leather, furniture, and embroideries, reputed for richness of design and work.

The department of PUNO is divided into the provinces of Lampa, Azangaro, Carabaya, Chuquito, and Guancani. Quinoa, potatoes, and barley cut green for fodder, are the chief agricultural products. The produce of the silver mines, and of the cattle are exported from this department. Goods are transported from the port of Arica to Bolivia by the mountain passes over the Altos de Toledo, and of Las Gualillas. Puno, the capital, 12,832 feet above the sea, has about 9000 inhabitants; Chuquito about 5000 inhabitants: both these towns are near the western banks of the Lake Titicaca. Near Puno there are silver mines.

The department of AREQUIPA is divided into the provinces of Camana, Condesuyos de Arequipa, the Cercado or district of Arequipa, Moquegua, Arica, Tarapacà, and Cayllóma. The produce of the silver and copper-mines, cotton, wool, and sugar, are exported. Saltpetre in abundance is procured in the province of Tarapacà, and shipped chiefly to England. *Acari*, which is built in a fine plain not far from the sea, has about 6000 inhabitants; Point Lomas, its port, has good anchorage. Arequipa, in the vale of Arequipa, has about 30,000 inhabitants. It is a tolerably well-built and trading town, situated 7797 feet above the sea, and a few miles from the volcano de Arequipa, which is 18,300

feet high. Moquegua, has about 10,000 inhabitants. Tacna, about thirty miles from the sea, and 1700 feet above its level, is a depôt for European merchandise used in the Southern Montana, and the greater part of Bolivia, about 9000 inhabitants. Arica, the port of Tacna, has a good harbour, and about 3500 inhabitants. Iquique, with about 1000 inhabitants, exports the saltpetre procured in the surrounding country.

The plains east of the Montana are not included in any of the departments, and are inhabited by wild and independent tribes. The missions which were formerly established among them, have been either destroyed or abandoned.

CHAPTER XVII.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES OF PERU.

THE most recent accounts upon which we can rely are those included in the narrative of the United States exploring expedition, those of Tschudi, and some manuscript accounts which we possess. Messrs. Pickering, Rich, Agate, and Brackenridge, of the United States exploring expedition, obtained from the commodore permission to make an excursion to the Cordilleras of Peru, for the purpose of making botanical collections.

In Lima the journey was considered as a very serious undertaking, and likely to be attended with much danger, from the banditti who frequent the route they intended to pass over,—that to the mines of Pasco. They supplied themselves not only with blankets and horse-furniture, but with all sorts of provisions, and particularly with bread, of which they took as much as they could carry, notwithstanding the country was described as well inhabited. After the delay of a day, the passports came in the form of a letter of protection and recommendation from *Lafuente* himself, to the local authorities throughout all Peru, couched in the most liberal terms, and treating the affair with as much importance as if it were a national one. It is a regulation that the names of all who receive passports shall be published in the official gazette; their intention, therefore, became known to all Lima. From the few who are gazetted, it would appear that but a small number travel into the interior, or else that the regulation is not very strictly complied with.

The injunction to render the party assistance in case of need was very strong, and among other things specified to be furnished was *clothing*, which was thought to look somewhat ominous in this country of banditti. In spite of the positive terms in which the passport was expressed, it was found of little effect in procuring them mules or horses; and it was not till after much trouble and disappointment that horses were at last obtained from the post establishment.

On the 16th of May they were ready to set out.

Their route lay along the margin of the extensive plain that borders on the sea; columns of dust and particles of sand were seen rising from the heated plain, stirred by the action of the wind. Clouds of smoke, too, were visible in the distance, proceeding, according to the information of their guides, from the burning of the *cane-brakes*. The Peruvian willow, so much resembling the Lombardy poplar in its form, was much admired, and the contrast between the barren clay-coloured hills and the bright green of the irrigated fields was very remarkable.

Three leagues from Lima they passed through the ruins of an Inca town, situated (as they uniformly found them afterwards) on the border of an irrigated valley. The walls of the town were at right angles, very thick, built of mud, and unburnt brick; the hills were covered with the ruins of Indian buildings, some of them resembling fortifications.

They turned up a beautiful valley, on the irrigated fields were herds of horned cattle, horses, and goats, a proof that the irrigated land is not exclusively used for tillage.

Around Caballeros, seven leagues from Lima, are extensive meadows and fields of clover.

At midnight there was a shock of an earthquake. The house was rolled and shaken as if it had been on an agitated sea. The natives of the adjoining huts ran out into the road, uttering shrieks, striking their breasts, and offering prayers to the Holy Virgin to protect them. The shock lasted altogether about two minutes. It produced a slight nausea, like sea-sickness, which continued for some time afterwards, and a bewildering sensation, that rendered it difficult to collect their ideas to speak. This earthquake was the most violent that had been experienced for some time, and it was sensibly felt at Lima and through all Lower Peru.

On the 17th, the party set out up a dry mountain valley, the soil of which was composed of stones and loose powdery earth. This kind of ground continued for five leagues, with not a drop of water, nor was a plant or bird collected; nothing was seen growing but a few *tillandsias*. On this route they passed many crosses, marking the spot where there had been loss of life.

Immediately on the confines of this dreary waste, is Yanga, a deserted-looking place, but having some good gardens and orchards.

During the day they had been much annoyed by sand-flies and fleas; besides these, they had a few *mosquitos*, but the latter are seldom seen in Peru.

The screaming of parrots during the night, announced that some change had taken place in the vegetation. The land in the vicinity was cultivated, and some orchards and fields of clover were seen; the mountains, previously gray with *tillandsias*, had now assumed a greenish tinge. *Agaves* made their appearance here; and, a few miles beyond, the hills became green: all showed that a different region had been entered. The inclined roofs of the huts showed that rains were experienced.

The valley now became more contracted, level ground was seldom seen ; the mountains increased in elevation. Cascades were springing from almost the very summits of the high peaks ; cattle were grazing, and occasional cultivated patches were mingled with the pasture-grounds ; irrigation was no longer necessary ; and the Cordillera plants of the *Flora Peruviana*, with the vegetation described by Humboldt and Bonpland, were recognised. At noon they reached Obrajillo, the rendezvous of the two celebrated Spanish botanists, Ruiz and Pavon, authors of the *Flora Peruviana*.

Obrajillo, Canta, and San Miguel, about a mile distant from each other, are said to contain three or four thousand inhabitants. At Obrajillo, some difficulty in getting mules occurred. The horses they had brought from the low country were not considered capable of standing the cold and fatigue of the mountains ; and at Lima, they refuse to allow their mules to cross the mountains.

Obrajilva, the largest of the three towns, contains about one hundred cottages. It has a stone church, with two towers, apparently of some age, which fronts on the open square. The dwellings are of one story, without floors and almost without furniture ; yet it is said to be the residence of many wealthy people. It was impossible, from appearances, to determine, the high and low, the rich and the poor, all seem to live in the same style : but there are many pretty gardens and fields, under a good state of cultivation. The roadside itself looked like a flower-garden, and flowers of every hue were seen on either side, calceolarias, lobelias, &c.

Here was the first point where they had met the llama used as a beast of burden ; the load which they carry is from seventy to ninety pounds.

On the 19th, at an early hour, some vagabonds, assuming the name of Chilians, went the rounds of the village, helping themselves to every thing they desired, to the utter dismay of the inhabitants, who made no resistance. The consequence was, that the party, having neglected to supply themselves with bread the evening before, now lost the opportunity of doing it. This was a serious inconvenience, for Obrajillo supplies the upper country with bread, as Lima does the lower, and it is procured with difficulty, except at these two places. Potatoes were therefore taken as a substitute, though a very inconvenient one, from their great weight and bulk.

At Culnai, a village with about thirty cottages, believed to be 10,000 feet above the sea, cultivation ceases, ending with the potato, *tropæolum*, *oxalis*, and *basella*. The second region of plants also terminates here ; which is succeeded by the "Paramera," or cold pasture region of the Andes. This third region gives growth to a set of plants which make a gradual transition from those of the second region to low alpine scraggy bushes, none of which exceed two feet in height. The *Paramera* is remarkable for a dense sward of coarse grass, and low herbaceous plants, principally of the order *compositæ*. The flowers of the latter, it was remarked, were particularly large in proportion to the plant. These

form a rich pasturage for the flocks and herds, which are seen feeding in the valleys and along the sides of the hills.

No cultivation is attempted beyond Culnai, and but two species of *cacti* were met with above this point.

The exploring party, from a northerly direction, diverged more to the north-east. The temperature fell as they ascended, the air grew clear and bracing, and the scenery as they advanced became, from Culnai, interesting and sublime. To its wild and precipitous features was now added the high snowy peak of La Vinda in the distance, and some few spots of snow were occasionally seen in places sheltered from the sun's rays. The mule-paths had become narrow, and when they met with mules, which was often the case, it became necessary to turn under the rocks until the path was clear.

The sagacity of these mules is remarkable. They cling to the wall side, and will succeed in doing so if not prevented by the rider. Their caution is great when they apprehend danger in passing over steep places; the instant danger was anticipated, the nose and fore-feet were used to ascertain its extent, which done, the animals cautiously proceeded, and reached the bottom with great care and ease.

When the party had ascended to the fourth or alpine region, they met with sharp and cutting winds, with hail and snow. The lower part of this region was estimated at an elevation of about 15,000 feet. As effects of this elevation, they were oppressed with headache, difficulty of breathing, and excessive lassitude.

"The crest of the Cordilleras is at this place a league in width, the surface very uneven, containing small lakes without outlets, sunk in deep hollows; beyond this the streams which form the extreme sources of the Amazon were running to the eastward."

After travelling two leagues on a gentle descent they reached at Casa Cancha, a muleteer's rendezvous. It was in charge of two women. The accommodation was an apartment common to all, with no fastening to the door or windows, without a fire, and only the hard ground to sleep on.

At night the thermometer frequently falls to the freezing point, and the climate is like that of winter; there is not a stick of wood nor any resinous fuel, as on the Chilian Andes, to be had, and the cooking is done with turf, when it can be obtained, but dry cow-dung is most commonly used for this purpose. This is the only and the best establishment the place affords; even the first females in the country who are bold enough to ascend the Cordilleras, can procure no better accommodations, and will bear it for the night with contentment.

During the night the party were very much troubled with headache and difficulty in breathing; they passed an uncomfortable night on the clay floor. The thermometer in the doorway stood in the morning at 33 deg.

Casa Cancha is in a valley surrounded by lofty mountains. Its height, upon the authority of a gentleman at Lima, is 14,500 feet above the level of the sea.

Pasturage in its vicinity is good; sheep and cattle are abundant: bread and potatoes are brought over the mountains from Obrajillo.

On the morning the party, with one exception, were all affected with vomiting, headache, and fever, and still suffering much from difficulty in breathing; this is usually felt on first visiting these elevated regions, and said to be particularly so at night.

The morning proved so boisterous with frequent hail showers, that they determined to remain the day, to rest their mules and recruit themselves.

As the weather allowed them to botanise, they set out in two parties, but had not been occupied over two hours before they were overtaken by a severe snow-storm, which entirely covered up all small plants.

They started at an early hour, the wild geese were flying and feeding around them. The object was now to proceed to Alpamarca, distant from Casa Cancha about two leagues. Their guides being unacquainted with the paths, led them among the mountains, and over extensive plains, covered with coarse herbage. A variety of beautiful flowers were found, and domesticated llamas were seen feeding.

At Alpamarca are a few huts in the vicinity of a silver-mine, where they found some Peruvian gentlemen, collected from various quarters, who received the United States party with great kindness. They were served in a large gourd-shell with Spanish hotchpotch, or olla, with carrots, pot-garlic, pepper, and small bits of mutton. This repast was well timed, for the party had been fasting for several hours.

Silver Mines of Alpamarca.—The Peruvians showed the process of extracting the silver: the ore is broken up until it resembles earth; it is then thrown into a large round vat, and mixed with mercury and water; six or eight mules are then turned in and driven round and round, until the amalgam is formed; it is then put into a vessel, and stirred with water until the earth mixes with it, and the water being poured off, leaves the amalgam, whence the mercury is finally evaporated.

The ore appears to be taken almost entirely from the surface. It is poor, and the mines do not yield much profit. There are many old veins that have been extensively worked, but owing to their depth have been abandoned.

The superintendent proved to be an English miner (Mr. R. Bevan), who had been twenty years in the country. He informed them that the old Spaniards had worked the mines cheaper than any one has been able to do since. They were large landholders, and contrived to keep themselves in debt to their tenants; this they always paid in manufactured goods, very much in demand with the Indians who worked the mines, thus making a double profit on the wages. At the present time the mines are worked by Indians of mixed blood, who have a language of their own. They are much addicted to the use of coca (the leaf of the erythroxylon coco, which is mixed and masticated with *quinoa*), and without a supply of this leaf they will not work.

Mr. Bevan took the party to the mine, which is some distance up the mountains. Much difficulty was experienced in breathing the rarefied atmosphere, and great fatigue in walking; so much so, that it was necessary to stop every few steps to rest; Mr. Bevan, and the Indians who accompanied him, appeared to be more affected than any of the party. He assured them that it was the same even with the Indians born on the spot, showing that neither time nor other circumstances can adapt a constitution to this elevated region. On reaching the mouth of the mine, they saw several emaciated and ghastly-looking Indians seated near the entrance; they descended a few yards into it, but found that time would not admit of the delay necessary to pass down to the places where they were at work.

On no part of their journey did they find so many remarkable plants as on this mountain.

Towards the middle of the afternoon they returned to the hut, when they determined to proceed to Banos.

Along the road they passed some high ridges, with snow and ice coming at times down to the path; also lakes in deep ravines, somewhat resembling small craters, which, like all the rest they had seen, were tenanted by numerous water-fowl.

The crest of the Andes did not appear here quite so broad as it had been found to be four leagues to the southward, but its elevation was thought to be greater. The continuous ranges of snowy peaks in the direction of Pasco were very striking. The Indians have names for the most remarkable ones, but the Spaniards embrace the whole, together with the principal one, under the name of *La Vinda*.

At dark they reached Banos, which is considered to be at about the same elevation as Culnai, but the descent is more rapid to the former. According to the custom of the country, they applied to the alcalde for accommodations, who is obliged, according to law, to furnish travellers with a house, if the town should possess none for the use of strangers, free of expense, and to provide them with a cook; the travellers buy their own provisions, and pay for the cooking, one real for each dish.

Banos is celebrated for its mineral hot-springs, from which it derives its name; they flow from the base of a high mountain.

The town consists of about thirty houses and a church, of which the inhabitants are very proud. It is a neat little village, situated in a deep ravine, by the side of a tumbling stream, bounded on both sides by precipitous mountains 3000 feet high.

Along the margin of the stream, carnations, pinks, stock gillyflowers, and French marigolds grew naturally; the pinks grow in immense numbers in every crack and crevice.

The cabbages here are woody and arborescent, like the cow or tree-cabbage, the trunk and branches being quite hard, and covered with bark.

The thermometer stood at 50 degrees, and the weather, in comparison with the day before, was mild.

The soil in this valley is good, and cultivated in some places with care: no fruit was observed. The largest trees were a species of elder and a buddlea; calceolaria, salvia, and heliotropium abounded.

At an early hour in the morning the villages or huts of this pasture region are deserted by the inhabitants, who go forth to tend their herds.

The houses in these villages contained no other articles of furniture than some roughly-made wooden spoons, earthen dishes, and water-jugs, a few boards made into a rough table, with a stool or two, and a bedstead made of canes, and plastered with clay. In no part of the United States, whether in the cabins of the far west, or in the poorest suburbs of the eastern cities, are persons to be seen living in such a miserable manner. The country people of Peru, notwithstanding they are surrounded with every thing to make them comfortable, want the knowledge and industry to use the advantages nature has given them.

On the party returning to Culnai, the villagers were busy gathering in their potatoes. There were also several patches of oxaliscunata, tropæolum, tuberosum and a species of basella; all of them are eaten by the natives. These patches are enclosed by low stone dikes; the plants, as they grow, are earthed up as potatoes are in Europe and the United States; irrigation is necessary, as the soil is light and open, and consists chiefly of decayed rock and vegetable mould.

Culnai and Banos are about on the same level, 10,000 feet above the sea, and are the highest points of cultivation; they are both distant from the crest, by the route of the streams, about nine miles.

At Obrajillo good crops of Indian corn, rye, and beans are raised; but none of these grow at a greater altitude.

The party saw in the morning a town officer strutting with a spear about the public square, calling all the women out to come and sweep it. They soon made their appearance, and were not long in creating a prodigious dust. They swept the dirt up into small heaps, then taking their coarse shawls from their shoulders, they spread them upon the ground, and put the dirt they had collected into them to be carried away.

On settling with the guides at this place, they requested their money might be kept for them until they reached Lima, as they certainly would be robbed if they took it themselves. This proves how little security there is for persons having any thing valuable about them in this country.

The frequency of murder, highway robbery, and a constant resort to the *cuchillo*, has not been exaggerated in the accounts of Lower Peru.

The guides, knowing well the dangers to be apprehended, showed much solicitude about keeping the company together.

They reached *Yanga* without accident, and finding the posada occupied by a party of soldiers and a recruiting officer, they were directed to a house with a porch, but they found it shut up. Soon after a woman appeared, and on being informed of their situation, and that they had fasted for two days, she set about providing for their supper. She proved to be the owner of the estate, was somewhat advanced in life, managed her own affairs, and was seemingly well adapted to encounter the roughness of the times. The heiress, a little girl, came galloping on a horse, driving the cattle before her with the air of a veteran, having command over both the animal she rode and those she drove; they were not much struck with her beauty, for her well-plastered face, and wide-spreading and matted hair, gave her the appearance of an elf; but she was a specimen of Peruvian nobility. Their supper was good, and they were permitted to lie on the clay floor in the house.

They paid the usual price for the accommodations. In the morning, before their departure, they purchased fifty oranges for twelve and a half cents (a real), it being stipulated, however, that they should be gathered by themselves. These served to refresh them while passing over the barren track (described in their ascent) of four leagues.

Monotonous Vegetation.—The great difference of elevation, and the variation in climate consequent thereon, would lead one to expect a greater variety in the vegetation, than was actually found. Forests were nowhere met with, nor were any of the palm tribe seen; very few of the many tropical plants were perceived even on the coast of Peru. The smaller shrubs were seldom found, except in the lower region, where their limit is circumscribed to the well-watered district. Thickets are very rare, and in the higher regions appear to be altogether wanting. The vegetation of Peru, on the whole, is characterised by an air of tameness, indicating but a slight change of season, and has been classed into four distinct botanical regions, which are easily distinguished.

Geology of Peru.—The geological structure of the region passed over by the exploring party, as far as their observations went, corresponds to that of North Chile, with the exception of a narrow belt of sedimentary rocks along the sea-coast, west of the granitic range, which is wanting in that country. This belt includes the island of San Lorenzo and others, as well as the coast itself, to the extent of from seven to ten miles from the sea-beach. These sedimentary rocks are argillaceous, distinctly stratified, and more or less slaty, the layers being in many places discoloured by the red oxide of iron. In other places they appeared of a black colour, as if in the vicinity of coal-beds, of which the existence was spoken of, but they did not discover any unequivocal traces of this substance. Some conspicuous examples of faults were noticed by Mr. Dana along the coast of San Lorenzo. Many minerals were also found by this gentleman; among them gypsum was of frequent occurrence, as well

as some fossils : for fuller information reference is made to the Geological Report.

The hills and mountains to the eastward, joining the above sedimentary rocks, are exclusively of granite, which extends in width to the distance of forty-five geographical miles beyond Yaso. In places it has very much the appearance of a stratified rock : it is much broken, and variable in its character, so as to render it somewhat deceptive. Dr. Pickering observes,—

“That this peculiar character or appearance is owing to the slow process of the decomposition of the rock in this dry climate, and which would, in other places, subject to the ordinary fluctuations of seasons, be covered with several feet of earth. The same reasons will account for the duration of the Inca villages that cover many of the hills, and which a copious shower would entirely wash away. The granite on its eastern side was coarse-grained, presenting more of the ordinary appearance of that rock.”

Immediately eastward of the granite district commence the trap rocks, consisting for the most part of porphyry. Dr. Pickering traced the line of junction for some miles: the hills on one side being of granite, on the other porphyry. The eastern limit of the trap region is supposed to be distant some twenty miles from the western. The porphyry resembles the Swedish, and that in the vicinity of Boston, New England. Many porphyry pebbles, supposed to be of this formation, were found on the beach at Callao, having, it is to be presumed, been carried there by the water-courses.

Next comes the plateau of the Cordilleras, which is formed of sedimentary rocks; this includes the silver-mines, and the highest peaks, and is apparently of the same age as the coast. Much of the rock is argillaceous. At Banos, an argillaceous limestone was used for burning, and quantities of gypsum, used for manure, was brought from the vicinity of Casa Cancha, some twenty miles to the north. Conglomerates prevailed over a great portion of the crest the party traversed. The pebbles included of regular shape, smooth and polished as if sea-washed. The smoothness of the pebbles in the torrents of the Cordilleras had a strong resemblance to those on the sea-beach.—*United States Exploring Expedition.*

The bare spots of the higher peaks did not present the variety of colour of the Chilian Andes, but had a uniform dark, slaty hue. Gypsum incrustations were seen forming on the rocks and plants.

Obrajillo, Canta, and some other valleys in Peru, extend from the sea-coast to the Cordillera: some only descend a few leagues rapidly from the *puna* or lofty table-land, others sink into deep ravines in the Central Andes, or under the face of the Montana.

The great region between the gigantic mountains, Andes, and western or Cordillera range, comprises extensive table-lands yielding short, fine grass and hilly pastures, which, Dr. Smith says, is “very like in general outline to the Highlands of Scotland, though destitute of heath.” This region is watered by lagoons and intersected by rivers and temperate or warm valleys, the soil and

climate of which yield the richest fruits, while the summits of the hills and mountains are cold and barren. Dr. Smith says,—

“From one of these glens, where we once resided for some time, we left a house at the door of which the lemon-tree was in perpetual fruit and blossom, and in two or three hours thereafter arrived at the rugged crags and peaks of the eastern Cordillera.”

The roads or routes from the western coast to the Central Andes wind along narrow glens and ravines, faced by lofty mountains or rocks.

“Many of the mountain roads,” says Dr. Smith, “as they leave the bottom of the glens, and ascend, in more or less of a *caracole*, along the face of formidable steeps, seem to bear date of origin from the *Quichoa* era, when the llama was the only beast of burden in the country. These animals, like their Indian owners, delight most in the cool of the hills; but, when laden and on the road, their slow and stately gait must not be hurried or interfered with, nor their burden increased beyond their liking, which seldom exceeds seventy or eighty pounds weight on a long journey: the Indian understands their way, and rules them by gentleness. As the llamas are not for forced marches, and only make short stages of three or four leagues daily, the paths that lead through the pasture-grounds are the best suited for them.

“There are places where there would be danger, on meeting an impatient animal or careless horseman, that either party would be hurled over the brink, and consigned to the condors and eaglets that nestle on the cliffs and in the dark chasms of the crags.

“Such dangerous passes are at some places so contracted that the stirrup of the muleteer is seen to overhang the foaming stream, or project beyond the verge of the boldest precipice; and every now and then they are made more formidable by abrupt angles and insecure breast-work without parapets, hastily constructed when the rush of a sudden torrent from the hollow of a hill, or large stones rolling from the heights, have cleft the way so as to render it for a time impassable.

“There are also many *cuestas* or rapid steeps, with here and there flights of steps, roughly cut in the hard rock. By the wayside, in tedious *cuestas* of several leagues in extent, recesses are, in numerous instances, worked out on the higher side of the road, which serve for the passengers to draw up, while those from an opposite direction are allowed to pass on, or where muleteers stop their cattle to adjust their cargoes and tighten their lassos. But when a rock or shoulder of a cliff juts out from the road towards the lower or precipice side, leaving more or less room for a resting-place, then the little flat space is coarsely walled in with large fragments of rock and such smaller stones as may be at hand, giving the idea of a rude but commanding fortress.

“The famous Cuesta of San Mateo, on the Tarma road from Lima, we passed in the year 1834, and could not but wonder how, without any very serious accident, an army of cavalry had been able to pass the same route a few months before, when the path and staircases were yet wet and slippery from occasional showers.

“The *Indian's eyrie* on the summit of some steep and lofty mountain (seldom visited by a white man, save the curate), may be easily passed many times unnoticed by a stranger, who may never be led to suspect its existence, unless he meets a swift-footed Indian, closely followed by a person on a well-accoutred and elegant mule, whose gear,” says Dr. Smith, “is all laden with silver ornaments; and the rider, who sits at his ease in a saddle of the country with a rich pillion, wears a large-brimmed hat, with a black silk cap emerging to view at the ears and temples. He has on at least a couple of ponchos (mantles) well-decorated and fringed; his black or brown stockings are of warm Vicuna wool; and the heel of a small shoe, half-concealed in a clumsy and costly, though wooden stirrup, is armed with a prodigiously disproportioned silver spur, with a large tinkling roller, used to keep his noble animal in mind that she is but the harbinger of death, and carries on her back the keeper of the sinner's conscience.

“This minister of peace to the miserable hurries to save the soul of a dying Christian, whose abode, like the falcon's, overlooks the ordinary path of wayfaring men; and which, when descried, seems, to the sight of an observer underneath, to be indeed the loftiest earthly point between the ground he himself stands upon and that heaven for which, it

is believed, the anxious and fluttering spirit of the gasping Indian only waits the curate's absolution and blessing to wing its immortal flight. It occurs to us here to remark, that in the remote curacies of the hills no friars are to be seen, as on the coast or more genial climates; an important part of whose duty it is, wherever they locate themselves, to aid the Christian to die well, and to watch by his pillow, and exhort and comfort him, while the crucifix and taper are ever before his eyes, and the breath of life about to leave his animal frame."

From Lima to the Cerro de Pasco a rider, on a good horse, will arrive in four days without injury to himself or beast, and this is considered good work; but we have known the journey from the Cerro to Lima performed in about fifty hours: this again is a work of over-exertion for the man, who is very likely to incapacitate one or perhaps two animals in the undertaking. It may be said, in general, that on a rough and hilly road a league an hour is a fair rate of travelling for a fresh beast on any ordinary journey in the interior of Peru.

The arrieros with cargoes usually take nine or ten days, and sometimes more, from Lima to Pasco, as they make short stages, consulting the ease of their cattle and convenience of lucern or pasture; and at Obrajillo they commonly rest a day at least, to refresh or perhaps relay some of their cattle, before they proceed to brave the toils of the Cordillera.

Bridges.—When the aboriginal race had to pass any river, their engineers supplied, as best they could, the wants of science by natural sagacity. They constructed a simple bridge near the outlet of a stream whence it happened to flow; as is seen at the Lakes of Lauricocha and Pomacocha. The bridge was built by laying down large stones at short intervals from bank to bank; and when piled above the surface of the water, they served as abutments or supporters, over which were laid transversely large flags, which formed an even and safe passage for men and cattle. These abutments, too wide apart for stepping-stones, are still to be seen firm in their places, though the transverse flags are no longer found, at least at Pomacocha.

The swing or sogá bridge, of ancient invention, is still used in Peru. It is made by ropes twined from the pliable *bejuco*, twigs of willow, or any other flexible and vegetable filaments; and these are well secured at the ends on the opposite banks of the water: on these, bundles of maguey leaves, broom, or other long shrubs, are laid crosswise, and bound closely and firmly by ligaments or slips of the maguey leaf ("cabuía"). This kind of bridge is made of sufficient breadth for foot-passengers; and a hand-rope runs along each side, by which the traveller can steady himself while walking over. A good specimen of this kind is the *sogá bridge* of modern Huanuco. At Oroya, over the River Jauja, there is one strong enough for cargo-mules to cross upon. The ropes are made of bullock's hide, and extend from bank to bank; the cross-bars are squared pieces of wood bound down with thongs, and broad enough to allow the animal to pass. For passing the lakes and rivers of the Andes, the "balsa," a small canoe made of rushes, is used.

Aqueducts.—The aqueducts of the ancient Peruvians are still traced along the chasms of rocks and sides of arid eminences in the vicinity of the coast, and in the dry intermediate valleys. These ruined aqueducts sometimes appear among the most rugged crags, and in some places are elevated to a remarkable elevation.

Dr. Smith says,—

“ One of the most striking of these aqueducts is about eight leagues from Lima, on the low road to Alcacota by Caballeros, on a high rocky acclivity, along the base of which runs the road, close by the winding of the River Chillon or Carabaillo, which descends from the Cordillera, by Obrajillo. It is also very usual in the temperate valleys, where the hills are flanked with soil, and clothed in vegetation, to meet here and there the ruins of small villages with files of successively rising platforms on the hollow side of a hill. These tiers of artificial flats, or gardens, are generally only a few yards in breadth ; but in length greater or less, in proportion to the dimensions of the semicircular sweep of the recess capable of cultivation.”

Hanging Gardens.—Between the cliffs in the neighbourhood of Culnai, may be seen samples of those tiers of gardens, built up one above the other on the face of the acclivity.

In constructing these gardens one above the other, the aborigines must have begun by erecting a stone wall on the lower part of the slope, or more even ground, that formed the base of the series ; and, as it was in process of rising to the desired height, the earth must have been scraped down from the side of the acclivity, to fill up the space thus partitioned off into a level bank or platform : then, behind this first level was raised another stony partition, and more earth again scraped down ; and so on successively, till the uppermost and last tier of these little and tasteful gardens was completed.*

By such means the natives always preserved deep soil, which they dug up at pleasure, bringing a new surface of earth to yield a new crop without manure, and by the same contrivance they preserved from the washings of the frequent and heavy rains, the vegetable loam which they thus so laboriously collected.

On descending from the inner regions of the country, among the arid and naked granite mountains near the coast, the ruins of Pagan dwellings show themselves in the crevices of the rocks, where no plant is seen on the waste land, save a few scattered cacti, and no moving creature except the lizard that basks, and the kite that waits its motions, on the crumbling ruins and circumjacent blocks, which have been rolled from their original seats on the face of the steep. Nearer the capital, the vale of Rimac unfolds its wide and fertile deep alluvial soil, but which if not irrigated presents a sterile desert. It only requires irrigation—and no manure—to yield sugar-cane, and to send forth lucern and Indian corn in luxuriance.

* The Indian gardens on the hills of the Sierra are by the Spaniards called *Andenes*, whence Andes.

CHAPTER XVIII.

MINERALS.

THE mineral riches of the Montaña, especially in silver extracted, is very great; but many of the mines are abandoned. Those of Pasco are considered the richest mines now worked in South America; they formerly produced eight million of dollars, or 1,800,000*l.* annually. The mines of Gualgayoc, towards the northern boundary of the republic, are also rich. At Huancabelica there are quicksilver mines, which were formerly productive; gold dust, and in pieces, occurs in several rivers; copper, iron, lead, and sulphur are also found. Nitrate of soda is gathered in the Valles as an article of export. Salt is prepared along the Pacific, especially at Salimus, near Callao, in Sechura Bay, rock-salt in the interior of Montaña.

PLAIN OF SAN JUAN AND MINING REGION OF PASCO.—The town of Pasco, situated at an elevation of 13,000 feet, in the plain of San Juan, near the head of two ravines, one Rumiallana, leading to the northward, the other Huanuco, to the eastward. It has the beautiful Lake of Chinhaicoca, near old Pasco on the south. Herds of cattle and flocks of sheep feed on the brows of the hills; the tame llama and the shy vecuna are also seen; geese, ducks, snipes, plovers, water-hens, flamingoes, and other birds abound on or near the waters. The climate for at least half the year is gloomy and cold.

The ground that has been broken up, and in which ores have been found, is about half a mile in length, in a north and south direction, and about one-fourth of a mile east and west. Within the whole of this extent ores have been mined of greater or less value, and the mines formerly worked, and now deserted, are said to amount to upwards of a thousand.

Pasco is surrounded, north-east and south, by hills of blue limestone; on the west by hills of sandstone; and on the south-west by hills of a blue slate. All the ores of the Cerro are ferruginous, and the silver nearest to the surface is contained in an *ochreous iron-stone*. In some places the silver is mixed with lead and copper, and at variable depths; the ores rest on a bed of solid iron pyrites, which in some mines yield silver.

The plain of San Juan on the north is divided into many mining districts, to which names are given to distinguish them more readily. The southernmost of these, Zauricocha, contains several mines, from which the greatest quantity of silver has been produced since the revolution.

In the district of Santa Rosa, west of Zauricocha, a greater quantity of ore has been raised.

On the east of the Zauricocha is the district called Aranillapata, in which few mines are now worked; the ore, although abundant, is not rich.

Cayac, another district lying north of Zauricocha, is worked to some profit; and several mines in it have been yielding good returns.

To the north of Cayac are the Chucarillo and Zauracancha districts, the working of the mines in which had been impeded by water.

To the north of these last two districts lies the plain of San Juan; there are a few small veins running through some parts of it, but no important discovery has yet been made, although many mines have been opened and carried down to the depths of 120 to 150 feet.

The whole number of mines considered rich in the different districts of Pasco may be enumerated as follows :

Zauricocha.....	12 to 14
Santa Rosa	20 „ 25
Cayac	10 „ 12
Chucarillo	5 „ 6
Zauracancha	10 „ 12

Each of these mines comprises a space of 180 feet long by 90 feet wide.

The silver ores are estimated by a measure called a box of ore, which contains twenty-five mule loads of ten arrobas, or twenty-five pounds each. Each box varies in value from six Spanish marcs to 3000; the former being the lowest which, under the most favourable circumstances, will pay the cost of working.

The miner who raises ores in considerable quantities, which will give ten to twelve marcs per box, is considered to work profitably.

The produce of these mines since the close of the revolutionary war, has amounted to the following quantities :

Y E A R S.	Silver.	Weight.	Y E A R S.	Silver.	Weight.
	bars.	marcs. oz.		bars.	marcs. oz.
1825.....	228	56,971 6	1833.....	1133	256,333 2
1826.....	818	163,852	1834.....	1142	267,363 4
1827.....	1068	221,707 7	1835.....	1148	276,813 2
1828.....	922	201,338	1836.....	991	244,404 1
1829.....	359	82,031	1837.....	1972	234,785 3
1830.....	457	96,265	1838.....	1172	248,022 6
1831.....	635	135,139 3	1839.....	1210	279,260 3
1832.....	994	219,380 5			

Shopkeepers and dealers in *plata-pina* are tempted to lend money to needy mine-owners, to be repaid in *pina** at so much per marc. Such a lender is called “habilitador;” but, by the custom and usage of the miner, the last “habilitador” has a claim to be first paid, which leads to the worst practical results.

The establishment for grinding and amalgamating the ores are situated at

* *Plata-pina*, or simply *pina*, is the name given to silver not entirely purified from the mercury which adheres to it in the process of amalgamation. Amalgamation is effected by mixing the ore, after it has been ground, with salt and quicksilver; treading the whole together by men or cattle; then allowing it to repose in *cerco*, or in the enclosure in which it has been trodden, for a month or six weeks. At the expiration of this time the quicksilver is supposed to have combined with all the silver in the mass, and to have formed a perfect amalgam, called *pella*, which is separated by washing away the mud and refuse of the ore. The *pella* thus obtained is white, and so liquid that, by putting it into a strong bag, a considerable quantity of the mercury is made, by pressure, to escape, leaving the amalgam solid. It is decomposed by a red heat; and the mercury being distilled, it may again be applied to the same purpose as before. In the process there is usually great waste of quicksilver, on account of the bad apparatus employed; and the fixed metal or silver which remains is what is called *pina*. This *pina* is usually sold by the miner in round masses larger than cannon-balls; and these balls of silver are, by the trader who does not venture on smuggling, carried to the government smelter stationed at the mines, by whom they are melted down, purified, and cast into bars, which are stamped as the *ley* or standard purity: after which they are carried to the mint to be coined.

from one mile to three leagues from the mines: those nearest the town are deficient in water for several months in the year. The construction of all these mills is rude, and much power is lost.

The consumption of mercury, including mechanical and chemical loss, is about one pound for each marc of silver produced.

No attempts have been made at roasting any of the ores.

Coal mines are met with in various parts of the country, at the distance of from two to seven leagues; the price is one real for an arroba, but might be much reduced if the business were properly attended to.

Speculation is always rife in search of these valuable ores, and prospects of great gain are invariably held out to those who engage in them; but there is much difficulty in getting the business into successful operation. *The great error committed by all the English companies established in 1825, for working mines in Spanish America, was in saddling themselves with numbers of people, engaged at high salaries, and workmen at extravagant wages: the expenses attending this force swallowed up much of the funds before any work was begun.* These included not only inspectors and mining captains, but artisans, all of whom were sent from England. From a total change of life and circumstances, the mining captains and artisans almost invariably turned out in a short time drunkards, and became good for nothing. In some cases miners were brought out, and these turned out still more worthless than either of the two former classes. They, indeed, did more work than the Indians, but their wages were higher, and the expenses for their importation in addition made them cost much more.

The silver yielded in this department must, according to law, be sent to the government assay office to be melted into bars, and thence to the mint at Lima to be coined. The usual price of silver as it comes from the mine, is from seven dollars six reals, to seven dollars seven reals per marc. If remitted to Lima on account of the miner, it yields him about eight dollars one real per marc.

CHAPTER XIX.

C L I M A T E.

In the Valles of Peru rain seldom or never falls. There are heavy dews; for six months in the year the interior of the Montaña is subject to heavy daily showers, during the rainy season rains fall in torrents over the plains. In the Valles there are fogs, called *garua*. In the Montaña there is great cold on the sides and tops of the mountains, and excessive heat in the deep valleys. The plains are unhealthy, excessive heat causes pestilential vapours to arise from the stagnant waters. Generally speaking, the climate of Peru is far less salubrious than would be supposed from external appearances. Dr. Smith, who lived in the country, and who made its maladies and its climate his special study, says,

the temperature of the low valleys on the coast of Peru may be said not generally to exceed 82 deg. Fahrenheit in summer, nor lower than 60 deg. in winter. Pauza, the most northern province of Peru, has an almost perpetually dry atmosphere. When rain happens to fall—which is rare—grass and vegetables suddenly spring up on the fields of sand. As to the temperature generally of the sea-coast region, Dr. Smith observes,

“That where high hills overhang the sandy plains, or dry ‘pampas,’ it is difficult to say to what degree the thermometer may fall during night, when the rush of cold air from the upper regions is in proportion to the degree of radiation from the plains, and the force with which the sun’s rays during the day had struck on the scorched ground. So intensely on such occasions does the traveller feel the transition, that, when benighted on desert places, he is sometimes compelled by the keenness of the cold to dismount, and bury himself up to the neck in the warm sand, until a returning sun again befriend him on the morrow, and encourage him to pursue his trackless way.

“In Lima, the capital of Peru, neither the extremes of heat nor of cold are ever experienced; an advantage which it partly owes to its very splendid back-ground of mountains, rising one above another to the skies.

“On one occasion, when we observed the barometer fall from $29\frac{9}{16}$ to $29\frac{1}{2}$ inches, there had been a smart earthquake, which, though it happened in the usually dry month of January, was preceded by a gentle shower of rain, at the appearance of which the people in the streets rejoiced, and called it ‘*agua bendita*!’—holy water! On another occasion, when we noticed a similar sinking of the mercury, the River Rimac showed, by its turbid and swollen stream, that it rained heavily in the higher mountains. As for thunder and lightning, they have been so rarely witnessed in Lima, that there they may be said to be unknown. The above statements regarding the state of the atmosphere in Lima, it may be proper to mention, are founded on observations made by the writer at his residence in Archbishop’s-street, close to the cathedral and great square; but about a mile higher up, in a part of the city called the ‘Cercado,’ the influence of the adjacent hills is more sensibly felt in the cooler evenings and mornings; the night thermometer sometimes sinks down to 54 deg. at the orchards of the Cercado, when in the centre of the city it falls within an open window or veranda not under 60 deg. of Fahrenheit.”—*Smith’s Peru*.

In Lima the seasons are usually distinguished as spring, summer, autumn, and winter, but the usual division of the aborigines, into wet and dry, are the true distinctions.

“In May the mornings become damp and hazy; and, from the beginning to the latter end of June, more or less drizzly. In October, again, the rains, which even in the months of July and August are seldom heavier than a Scotch mist, cannot be said to be altogether over, as the days are still more or less wet, or occasionally there may be seen to fall a light passing shower; the evenings and mornings being damp and foggy.

“In November and December, when the dry season may be reckoned to have set in, the weather, except for an interval at noon, is for the most part cool, bracing, and delightful: and April, too, is in this respect an agreeable month; at the latter end of which, the natives of the capital, being so exceedingly sensitive as to feel a difference of only two or three degrees betwixt the temperature of two succeeding days like an entire change of climate, are admonished, by a disagreeable change in their sensations, to protect themselves by warm apparel against the chills arising from an occasional north-west, or from the influence of the common south-west wind.

“Throughout summer the wind blows almost uniformly, and in gentle breezes, from the south; but the prevailing wind for nine months in the year is the south-west, which, as it mingles with the warmer air along the arid coasts of Peru, tends to moderate the temperature of the atmosphere, and to produce the fog and ‘garua,’ or thick Scotch mists, of which we have taken notice. During the dry season on the coast, the rains are experienced in the interior of the country and lofty range of the high table-lands;

especially in the months of January, February, and March, when the rain that falls inland is often very heavy, and, on the most elevated regions, it is not unfrequently alternated with snow and hail. Thus, the dry season of the coast is the wet in the sierra, or mountain land, and *vice versâ*; and by merely ascending higher to the sierra, or descending close to the sea, without any appreciable shifting of latitude, the favoured Peruvians may enjoy, by the short migration of a few leagues, a perpetual summer or an endless winter; if that, indeed, should be called winter, which is the season of natural growth and herbage."*—*Smith's Peru*.

By the end of September, which is the beginning of *spring*, the trees in the great avenues around Lima begin to bud; and the leaves expand, as the grass fades on the adjacent hills. As soon as the natural vegetation on the neighbouring heights, and nearer ridges and declivities in view of the city, withers, the irrigated fields and enclosures send forth verdant agricultural crops.

Barley, peas, and maize, sown during the wet or misty season, come to maturity through the action of sun and artificial moisture, after all natural or spontaneous vegetation has withered and disappeared from the arid hills and sandy downs. The maize crops are always harvested in the "*menguante*," or decrease of the moon. Every cultivator believes, that if he collects the crop in the "*creciente*," or increase of the moon, it will not keep free of moths or mould for three months, even if left in the husk, in which state it is least liable to damage.

In the valleys around Lima the agriculturist will not sow in the "*creciente*," lest the seed should not yield a healthy crop. The same attention is observed by the wood-cutter, who considers that timber cut in the "*creciente*" soon decays. Mr. Smith says,

"Being disinclined to believe what he considered to be the prejudices of the natives respecting lunar influence, he insisted upon roofing in part of a house with alder and willow cut in the '*creciente*;' and after a couple of years he was convinced of his own error, when he saw the timber employed become quite brittle and useless."

The "*arriero*," or muleteer, scrupulously observes the influence of the moon on his cattle. If he travels in the "*creciente*," he will not unsaddle his horses, nor *unpad* his cargo-mules, until they have rested and cooled. He asserts that, if he should neglect these precautions, he would be sure to have his cattle disabled by large inflammatory swellings, rapidly running on to suppuration, forming on their shoulders or loins.

The "*chalan*," or horse-jobber, will not be prevailed upon to cut the lampas from a horse's gums; nor will a citizen of Lima, at any time, except in the "*menguante*," pare his own corns, for fear of inducing severe irritation. From

* "Late in August, or early in September, *Buena Vista*, in the enchanting vale of Lorin, six or seven leagues south of Lima, when the sandy downs, yet moistened by slight rains and vapours, and garnished with flowers, such of the trees in the vale as are not evergreen, and depend not, like the vegetation of the neighbouring heights, on the periodical rain of the coast, impart a certain melancholy hue to the landscape, as they have already commenced to shed abroad their sear foliage; and here the music of the thicket, and booth on the height, are both in unison with feelings inspired by the yellow-leaved willows, when the '*lomero*,' or herdsman of the downs, tunes the '*yaravi*,' a mournful Indian strain, on his homely lute, and when the *cuculi*, in a plaintive note, responds from the guarango grove."—*Smith's Peru*.

all these facts, lunar influence is considered very remarkable in Peru, both in respect to the animal and vegetable kingdom.

There certainly appears to be something peculiarly enervating in the atmosphere of Lima. According to Dr. Smith and others, the dog species becomes sluggish and spiritless, and more disposed to bark than to bite; and it shows itself in its influence on the male descendants of unmixed European parentage. The sons of the old brave and stately Spaniard dwindle away into effeminacy.

Dr. Smith observes,

“If the mildness of contagious epidemic diseases were to afford a fair test by which to judge of the climate of any particular locality, or the medical police of its community, that of Lima would surely rank as one of the most favourable. But, however open and spacious be the construction of the houses and site of this capital, and whatever may be said for, or against, the personal and domestic cleanliness of its inhabitants, and other circumstances affecting the health of individuals, it must be admitted that the salubrity of Lima, and the chances of life it affords, are materially diminished from the want of due attention to public cleanliness.”

The aqueducts or canals, which run along the principal streets from east to west, and give off branches for gardens and convents, &c., are, after they have passed the city, to some extent usefully distributed on fields between it and the seaport. But, in general, agriculture, like every other branch of industry, is neglected since the revolution. The drains intended to convey the surplus water from the city over a gentle slope, to impart moisture to the good soil which could not otherwise part with its nutritive properties, or support vegetation, are frequently in a ruinous condition. Thus, the water is suffered to stagnate in some parts, and run waste in others, without being applied to those purposes of tillage which should be the means of augmenting the health, population, and general resources of Lima and its environs. By the street-canals, are to be seen all day long vultures (by far the most efficient agents of police), gulping up the refuse cast into these receptacles of every sort of nuisance. When the water runs in small quantity, or is altogether stopped from neglect, the quantity of vegetable and animal deposit carelessly allowed to accumulate in these channels emits gaseous volatile poison, more or less penetrating and pernicious, according to the season of the year and heat of the weather.

The manure conveyed from the pens and stables, when not thrown into the canals, is conveyed to the broad walls of the city, and there heaped up day after day; or, if not thus disposed of, it is carried to the river's brink, where it is suffered to accumulate into fermenting mounds, daily increasing in size. Here it absorbs moisture, and generates miasmata. Culpable inattention to the cleanliness and salubrity of the capital has contributed largely to entail upon them a greater proportion of disease and mortality than could be expected from the climate. Those natives, indeed, who have passed a life of well-regulated habits, are said to attain a cheerful old age in Lima; and there are instances

of a few individuals exceeding a hundred years of age, who preserve considerable bodily activity and mental vivacity.

NUMBER of Deaths in Lima and its Suburbs, from the Year 1826 to the Year 1835, both inclusive, taken from a careful Examination of the Register-Books belonging to the Pantheon, or Public Cemetery at Lima.

Y E A R S.	Deaths.	Y E A R S.	Deaths.	Total Number of Deaths in the preceding Ten Years.
	number.		number.	number.
1826.....	2075	1831.....	1871	23,508
1827.....	2162	1832.....	2576	
1828.....	2106	1833.....	3305	
1829.....	1948	1834.....	2744	
1830.....	2118	1835.....	2603	

The capital of Lima comprehends within its walls, huts and cottages, contiguous to the city gates, and suburbs of San Lazaro, 54,098 persons of all sexes, castes, states, and conditions, which are distinguished minutely in the same statement, of which the total amount consists of 27,545 males, and 26,553 females.

Mr. Smith, speaking of the climate of Peru and of the high region which he visited, observes,

“From Yanga to Huaramayo, the glen through which lies the road to Cerro Pasco by Canta is extremely narrow and confined, except at Santa Rosa, where it is somewhat more open. The way often recedes from, though it is generally in sight of, the bed of the river; and is bound in on each side by lofty and sterile granite mountains, which, on the left side of the river as we ascend, are frequently intersected with narrow, perpendicular veins, that arise from the level of the water to the very summit of the mountain, and, from the road, present a ferruginous appearance. It is only by continued irrigation that the few patches and strips of soil throw forth their vegetable luxuriance.

“At Huaramayo the temperature is intermediate between that of the Sierra and the coast; and, as in the warm inland valleys in the centre of the Andes, so here, in a region of corresponding benignancy on the western acclivity of the same great mountain pile, we have the tree called molle, or mulli, in abundance along the river's edge. This tree is much prized as fuel; and the sugar-refiners of the interior use the ashes from it, in preference to those from any other wood, on account of their higher alkaline properties, and consequent efficiency in purifying the cane-juice while being boiled down to a proper consistence to be cast in moulds.”*

* “The Inca nation,” as we learn from Garcilaso de la Vega (see “*Commentarios Reales de los Incas*,” lib. viii. cap. xii.), “made a highly valued and medicinal beer, which some of the Indians of the interior still occasionally prepare, from the clusters of small-grained fruit that hang gracefully and abundantly from this pretty tree. We have said that the climate here corresponds to that of the warm central valleys of the Andes; but though analogous in several respects, yet there is this marked difference, that at Huaramayo, and other headlands like Huaramayo, as, for example, Surco, on the San Mateo route to the Sierra from Lima, there is neither winter nor summer, but one perpetual spring. It does not rain here for several months in the year, as in the more inland vales; but it agrees with them in being out of the sphere of frosts, and exempted from the raw fogs and sultry heat of the coast. At Surco, Huaramayo, and other similar localities in narrow glens extending from the coast to the Cordilleras, the sun appears to rise late, and to set early, for it is only for a few hours in the middle of the day that it shines strongly between the perpendicular and lofty hills of the valley; and the mid-day heat, arising from the powerful reflection of the sun's rays on the bare rocks, is succeeded by a cool and agreeable evening. Here then the atmospherical currents of mountains and coast meet and neutralise each other,—the extremes of both disappear: and the result is a delicious climate for the convalescent. With this important fact the delicate inhabitants of Lima are perfectly acquainted, and they are accustomed to resort to the cabezadas, or headlands of valleys, where these verge on the joint air of moun-

Captain Wilkes, of the United States Exploring Expedition, observes, "that were it not for irrigation from the mountain streams, a great part of Peru would become a desert. Indeed, the upland is so now. Though dry, the atmosphere is far from clear. Father Truillo, more than a century ago, recorded that the heavens were generally obscured. Captain Wilkes says, although a glimpse of the sun was usually had some time in the day, yet it was almost as difficult to get an observation of the sun as in Terra del Fuego. The dew *almozo* of Lima is never so great as to produce running water; yet it is more like rain than a Scottish mist." He accounts for the aridity of the high Cordilleras of Chili, as well as for the existence of the Desert of Acama, the want of rain on the coast of Peru, and the moisture of the high Cordilleras of Peru, to the fact that the cold dry winds from the southward, sweeping over the western, are great absorbents of moisture. On reaching about latitude 12 deg. south, they cease from being saturated, and on reaching to a sufficient height, are condensed by the cold, and fall on the mountain regions in almost constant rain. He further observes, fire is not used often in Lima, but that there is a "cold clammy feeling, that is exceedingly uncomfortable and prejudicial to health. Lima has the reputation of being healthy, but it does not deserve it." The interments have annually averaged over 3500, in a population not exceeding 45,000. Many of these are those of strangers, and the climate has always been fatal to the Indians.

tains and coast; as, for example, Matucana, the favourite resting-place of phthisical and hæmoptic individuals."

Close to Huaramayo, and by the old line of road, begin the steep ascents called the Paxaron, from the number of paroquets always seen about this place. The path is narrow, fatiguing, and precipitous, to near the village of Obrajillo, a distance of several leagues. On the airy hill-tops, that overlook this way and the ravine below it, are several villages, which are only to be approached by a zigzag and arduous track; and here the traveller passes over scenery which terrifies those who are unaccustomed to the ruggedness of alpine regions.

Canta and Obrajillo are situated in the same opening among the mountains: the latter is entirely the residence of muleteers, whose strong and active women share in the labours of the field; while Canta, on an eminence, is a provincial town, and the seat of a governorship.

The village of Obrajillo is built in a sort of irregular hollow near the bed of a small river, surrounded by arable hills receding and expanding as they rise towards the loftier summits, and therefore affording better ventilation than is to be found in any part of the valley between this and Yanga.

Canta is considered a sort of hospital for the invalides of Lima. In a medical point of view, Dr. Smith considers it invested with a great deal of interest. It is built on a hill whose base skirts the village of Obrajillo; while from the plaza of the lower village to the higher town, the ascent is no more than about thirty minutes' walk. Canta is also considered to enjoy a far purer air than Obrajillo. The inhabitants of Obrajillo and Canta cultivate alfalfa, or lucern, everywhere near the river, and in little enclosures, the surrounding hills are covered with pasture: the lower declivities and slopes produce wheat, beans, potatoes, maize, &c.

Of the leaves of the *culen*, one of the most common shrubs, the natives make a tea which is deemed an excellent stomachic. During the wet season flowers and flowering shrubs shoot forth with liberal profusion; but there is little wood to supply the inhabitants. Stone or adobe walls, with *thatched roofs*, are the buildings of the small villages or pueblos of the Sierra of Obrajillo. These dwellings are the receptacles of potatoes, maize, and other eatables. When the family retire to sleep, most of them lie down on sheepskins wherever they can find room.

CHAPTER XX.

POPULATION.

THE inhabitants are Creoles, or other descendants of Spaniards, Mestizoes, and a few negroes and mulattoes, but chiefly the descendants of the ancient Peruvians. The descendants of the Peruvians are tolerably industrious agriculturists, manufacturers, and fishermen. The coasting trade in the balsas is also carried on by them. They speak the quichua or language of the Incas. The tribes that inhabit the plains live chiefly amid the forests, and along the rivers.

Estimated number of inhabitants—230,819 whites; 848,846 Peruvians; 323,782 Mestizoes; 64,878 mulattoes; and 31,628 slaves: total, 1,499,953.—Distributed as follows in the departments.

But this and all other estimates of the population we consider vaguely calculated, though probably as near an approximation to the number as can be obtained, without taking a regular and correct census.

Of the white, or population of European races, we can say little more than will be found hereafter in the account of Lima. Of their general incapacity, until the people become more intelligent, and public men more virtuous, we have unfortunately too abundant proof.

The most recent description of the population of Peru is drawn up by Von Tschudi. He possibly tells us what he considers true; and other writers unhappily corroborate his assertions, we believe, however, there are many exceptions to the general rule. We extend these exceptions even to all the other states of the Spanish American republics; and the following remarks are, we believe, as applicable to the one as to the other of these states. Of the aboriginal race, what is referable to Peru may be, with little variation, extended to Bolivia, Ecuador, and part of New Granada.

Von Tschudi's account of the state, and his opinion of the prospects, of Peru, do not certainly convey much that is satisfactory, nor much good to hope for. Its moral degradation is significant in the decline of its population, which has been continually diminishing since the establishment of its independence. A great region, which contained an enormous population at the period of the conquest, numbered, according to what was termed the census of 1836, less than 1,400,000 inhabitants, not more than formerly inhabited the department of Cusco alone.

"Not less remarkable," he says, "than the number of illegitimate children (860) is that of the new-born infants exposed and found dead (495). These afford the most striking proofs of the immorality which prevails in Lima, especially among the coloured people; to them belong nearly two-thirds of the illegitimate births, and fully four-fifths of the children cast out to die. There is reason to suspect, though it cannot be posi-

tively proved, that no small portion of the latter suffer a violent death by the hands of their mothers. When a dead child is picked up before the church of San Lazaro, or in the street, it is carried without a word of inquiry to the Pantheon; frequently it is not even thought worth while to bury it. I have seen the vultures dragging about the sweltering carcasses of infants and devouring them in the populous streets. . . . On comparing the lists of births and deaths from 1826 to 1842, I satisfied myself that the annual excess of the latter over the former averages 550."

The causes of the decrease of population are ascribed partly to earthquakes, epidemics, and civil wars; and to the corruption of the national character, chiefly aggravating the calamities of the people. All the degraded features of Mexican character, all the public and private vices bequeathed by the Spaniard to his colonial descendants, present themselves, according to Tschudi, in Peru in exaggerated deformity. The white Creoles are described as a gross, sensual, slothful race, with, however, some generous qualities. The men are tall and well-proportioned, but exceedingly effeminate, with, he says, features that might be thought handsome, but for the expression stamped upon them by low vices and sensuality.*

The women of Lima are described as far superior to the men, both corporeally and intellectually; they are affectionate mothers, though their conduct in other respects is any thing but exemplary. It is not for the sake of pleasing their husbands that they cling, with invincible obstinacy, to the use of their national walking garb, the *saya y manto*, in which they take their walks in the streets, quite secure in that disguise from detection, even by the most jealous scrutiny. The veil is inviolable; any one who should attempt to take off a woman's *manto* would be immediately attacked by the populace. The lives of these ladies comprises two phases: in the bloom of beauty their time is divided between "doing nought and naughty doings;" when their charms are on the wane they take to devotion and scandal.†

* "Not that they are wanting in natural abilities, but these are not sufficiently developed by their very imperfect education, and their inveterate indolence prevents them from making good the deficiencies of their early years in after-life. They seldom rise above the sphere of every day matter of fact, and they are ignorant of almost every thing that lies beyond the narrow circle of their town, or at most of their district. I have often been astounded at the gross ignorance displayed by what were called well-educated Peruvians, respecting the position, extent, physical constitution, and the productions of their native land. Incredible as it may appear, it is a positive fact that a Peruvian minister-of-war could not tell either the number of the population or the area of Peru, and maintained with the utmost pertinacity that Portugal formed its eastern boundary, and that one might travel thither from Peru by land. Of past history they know little more than the name of Napoleon; but in talking of him they make the most ludicrous jumble of events, places, dates, and persons. For instance, a gentleman of high rank, who was universally reputed to be a very learned man, once related to me at full length how Frederick the Great drove Napoleon out of Russia."

† "A young lady of Lima rises late, dresses her hair with orange or jasmine flowers, and waits for breakfast, after which she receives or pays visits. During the heat of the day she swings in a hammock, or reclines on a sofa, smoking a cigar. After dinner she again pays visits, and finishes the evening either in the theatre, or the *Plaza*, or on the bridge. Few ladies occupy themselves with needle-work or netting, though some of them possess great skill in those arts. . . . The pride which the fair Limenas take in their dainty little feet knows no bounds. Walking, sitting,

Of all the coloured inhabitants of Lima the free negroes are, in Von Tschudi's opinion, the most hopelessly depraved; and next to them in immorality and vileness are the Zamboes. The mulattoes display better mental qualities; the Mestizoes are little inferior to the white Creoles. The Mestizoes look down on the Indians with contempt, which the latter return with unforgiving hatred. Von Tschudi and others are of opinion that the degenerate descendants of the Spaniards will be exterminated by the aborigines. The first edition of Garcilaso de la Vega's "History of the Incas" was seized and burnt by the Spanish government, "because it contained a prophecy registered in the temple of Cusco long before the arrival of the Spaniards, and which announced the conquest of the kingdom, but added that the Incas would be restored to their throne at some future time by a people from a country called *Inclaterra*." The Indians made fierce attempts in the latter part of the eighteenth century to throw off the Spanish yoke, under Tupac Amaru, a descendant of their Incas. They were vanquished at last, it is said, by Spanish gold, but not until nearly 100,000 Spanish and Peruvian lives had been slaughtered. When the war of liberation broke out, the aboriginal races were easily persuaded to join.

"But," Tschudi says, "it is a great mistake to suppose that the native Indians made common cause with the Creoles against the Spaniards for the purpose of bringing about the present form of government; for their real object was to shake off the foreign yoke, and establish a dynasty of their own, after the pattern of their ancestors. It was not a

or standing, swinging in the hammock, or lying on the sofa, they are ever watchful to let their tiny feet be seen. Praise of their virtue, their understanding, or their beauty, sounds not half so sweetly in their ears as encomiums bestowed on their pretty feet. They take the most scrupulous care of them, and avoid every thing that might favour their enlargement. A large foot (*Palaza Inglesa*, 'an English foot,' as they say) is an abomination to them. I once heard a beautiful European lady deservedly extolled by some fair dames of Lima, but they wound up their eulogies with these words:—'*Pero que pie, valgame Dios! parece una lancha!*' (but what a foot; good heavens! it is like a great boat!) and yet the foot in question would by no means have been thought large in Europe. . . . They have great penetration, sound judgment, and very correct views respecting the most diversified affairs of life. Like the women of Seville, they are remarkable for their quick and pointed repartees, and a Limenas is sure never to come off second best in a war of words. They possess a rare firmness of character, and a courage not generally given to their sex: in these respects they are far superior to the dastardly, vacillating men, and they have played as important a part as the latter (often one much more so) in all the political troubles of the country. Ambitious and aspiring, accustomed to conduct with ease the maziest intrigues, with a presence of mind that never fails them at critical moments, passionate and bold, they mingle in the great game of politics with momentous effect, and usually turn it to their own advantage, seldom to that of the state.

"All these characteristics were combined in a high degree in the person of Dona Francisca Subyaga, the wife of Don Agustin Gamarra, formerly president of Peru. She was accused, indeed, of having been the main cause of the unhappy condition of Peru at the period of Gamarra's rule, but I believe that the real source of the evil lay in her husband's weakness and cowardice. When Gamarra and his troops were pelted with stones by the populace of Lima, in 1834, and he stood whining in the Plaza Mayor, not knowing what to do, Dona Francisca snatched his sword from his side, put herself at the head of the troops, and commanded a well-ordered retreat, the only means by which it was possible to save herself and the remains of the army. A looker-on having ventured to make some offensive remarks on her conduct, she rode up to him and told him, that when she returned she would have a pair of gloves made out of his skin. She died of epilepsy a few months afterwards, in exile in Valparaiso, otherwise she would certainly have fulfilled her threat four years afterwards, when things took a favourable turn for her party."—*Tschudi*.

republic they desired, but a monarchy, and a king chosen from the sacred family of their Incas. Of this the leaders of the revolutionary party were well aware, and they craftily affected to acquiesce in the designs of the Indians, and to labour for their fulfilment. Imperfectly acquainted with the true nature of the liberation war, in which they saw white men fighting against white men, the Indians turned their weapons against all *Pucacuncas* (pale faces) and Mistis, and killed Spaniards and patriots indifferently as they fell in their way. Their exasperation rose to such a pitch that all who were not of Indian blood were obliged to fly from several provinces, even though they were the most vehement foes of the Spaniards. In *Jauja* the Indians swore they would not leave a white dog or hen alive, and they scraped the very whitewash off the walls of the houses. They carried sack-loads of white people's heads every morning to the market-place, and ripped up the bellies of living Spaniards 'to see how many yards of guts a Godo had.' (Godo is their nickname for a Spaniard.) When General Valdes crossed the river of *Jauja* with a squadron of cavalry, and attacked the Indians assembled at the village of *Ataura*, the latter disdained to save themselves by flight; but catching the lances of the soldiers, they thrust them into their own breasts, crying out, *Matame, Godo* (kill me, Godo!) It seemed as if they hated the foe too much to deign to fly before them. The bodies of 2000 Indians covered the field.

"The provisional government of the patriots reinforced their armies by levies in the conquered provinces. This was the first time the Indians were employed as regular soldiers, and they soon acquired great renown for their coolness and their incredible power of endurance. It was but in few districts they came forward as volunteers, elsewhere they were forced conscripts, and they deserted whenever they had an opportunity."

After the expulsion of the Spaniards, the condition of the aboriginal race was very little improved; some oppressions were removed, new ones were extended to them, and they now remain slaves in the land of their fathers. Is it to be supposed that he should not cherish hatred of all who are not of his own race? It is said by Tschudi that—

"In most of the southern provinces the Indians assemble at cock crow on certain days in the hut of the village senior, or of the cacique, who relates to them the history of the Incas, the deeds of their descendants, and the insurrection of the unfortunate Tupac Amaru; inculcates upon them hatred of the *Pucacuncas*; assures them that the rule of their kings will be restored; and sets before them their carefully preserved portraits. These traditions and prophecies will assuredly not remain without effect. The arbitrary proceedings of the government, and the conduct of the Creoles, who treat the Indians more as brutes than as men, are stretching the cord to breaking. The Indians will once more arouse themselves and begin a war of extermination, as under Tupac Amaru, but with more success; after a fearful contest they will win back their native land, and restore their old constitution, with some modifications, perhaps, to suit existing circumstances, but all the other races will have fallen victims to their merciless vengeance."

The prophecy is, we consider, one of those accidents which, like many other oracles, acquires credence from events causing a probability of realising a similar effect. Nor do we believe that a restoration of aboriginal sovereign power would last if it should suppress Spanish republican domination. But when we consider what has been effected by the Indian Carrera in Guatemala, we must hesitate in our judgment, and the remarks of Von Tschudi on this subject are not to be passed over. He says,

"The Indians have made immense progress since the liberation war; they are acquainted with the use of fire-arms and military manœuvres, and *twenty years of uninterrupted civil war have kept them constantly practised in regular campaigning.* Most of

the fugitives from the numerous lost battles escaped with their arms, and these they keep carefully concealed. They are perfectly acquainted with the art of making gunpowder, large quantities of which they prepare and consume in fireworks at all their great festivals; their mountain valleys yield the materials in abundance.

"In 1841, I found eighteen regulation muskets in a miserable little village on the verge of a montaña of central Peru, in the hut of an alcalde where I resided for some days. When I asked him off-hand to what end he kept so many weapons, he answered me with a furtive side-long look, 'that there would come a time when they would be useful.'

"The public functionaries and the Mestizoes fail not to add perpetually to the accumulated fuel, which needs but a spark to burst into a devouring flame. So soon as the signal is given at any one point, the Indians of all Peru will gather with the speed of the wind under the banners of their leaders; but I believe that none but a man like Tupac Amaru, of imposing corporal and mental qualities, and of the royal lineage, will be able to lead the insurrection to a successful issue; and such a man will be once more forthcoming. What means of resistance can the government command, since its few troops consist for the most part of discontented Indians, who are ready at any moment to desert the hated service, and fight for their own interests? Even the most strenuous aid that could be afforded by European ships of war, would suffice at most to keep some harbours on the coast. The very first onset of the insurgents would be so terrific, that any junction between the Creoles and Europeans would be almost out of the question; and how small is their number in comparison with that of the Indians of pure blood!

"The character of the Peruvian Indian is uncommonly sombre: it was not so of yore, to judge from the lively delineations of the oldest writers on the country; but 300 years of tyrannous wrong have marked it with this hue. It is strikingly apparent in their songs, their music, their dances, and their whole domestic economy. Their favourite instruments are the *pututo* and the *jaina*. The former is a great conch shell, with which they produce a dismal music to accompany their mourning dances; in former times it was used at royal obsequies, and now it is sounded almost exclusively on the solemn days of mourning for the fallen native monarchy. The *jaina*, which appears to be a more modern invention, is an extremely simple kind of clarionet, made out of a large reed. The tone is thrillingly sad, unlike that of any other known instrument, and of almost marvellous effect. The wildest horde of Indians, in the uproar of debauchery or in the fiercest broil, grow still, as if by enchantment, if suddenly they hear the notes of the *jaina*, and mute and motionless as statues, they hang in rapt attention on the magic melody. A tear will steal into the Indian's hard eye, that before, perhaps, was never moistened but by intoxication, and the sobs of the women are the only sounds that disturb the almost unearthly music. The sad strains of the *jaina* awaken a nameless, vague yearning, and leave behind them for days a painful void; and yet the magic tones are always heard again with unabated eagerness."

Dr. Smith's remarks on the aborigines, though less sanguine, are also remarkable.

Tangur, in the department of Junin, is one of those Indian villages so common on the elevated slopes which overlook temperate valleys in the interior of Peru. In this village a curate, who for several years visited it, stated to him that there were then two distinct municipalities, each possessing its separate church and magistrates.

The aborigines of each municipality speak the same Quichua language, but do not associate together, nor do they even hold their religious festivals on the same day. The origin of this separation of interests, according to tradition, is as far back as the time of the Incas.

"When," according to Dr. Smith, "some convicts, ordered from Quito, settled at this place, and formed a distinct family, which has here subsisted since that remote

period, without ever mingling its blood with that of its neighbours, or entering into communion or alliance with any other people. This is the more remarkable, as it is the ordinary practice in other remote villages of the interior, for the whole body of men to co-operate in any great work, such as constructing bridges for their common good, or building houses for the convenience of individuals; on which occasions one party conducts stones and turf, another builds the walls, a third conveys timber from the distant woods,* and a fourth cuts and lays on the thatch, &c. The unanimity in this case, and the want of it in that of Tangur, are equally characteristic of that love which the Indian entertains for the usages of his predecessors in all things. If the general revolution has been in any degree useful to the poor uninformed Indian of Peru, who has already sunk from the short-lived excitement of patriotic enthusiasm into the dejection of a military despotism—if it has really improved his prospects, it has been by rousing him, for a while at least, from his wonted apathy to the general concerns and conveniences of life; opening to his view a wider range of imitation and desire, and thus breaking in upon the hereditary routine of his customs and habits, to which, till now, he has adhered with the unvarying constancy of mere instinct.”

The christianised Indians of the Inca dynasty, whose native tongue is Quichua (we do not at present speak of the half-christianised Pano, and other yet unsettled tribes of the Montana), are said to be an indolent race; but it is well-known that their exertion increases as the prospect of bettering their condition expands, and that in general their labour is only conducted in a slothful manner when it is compulsory, or to themselves unproductive. When they labour by “*tarea*,” or piece-work, and are sure of their wages, they work remarkably well. On their own little farms they are laborious; and if the fruit of their industry were not a temptation to the revenue exactors, they would be more constantly labouring. Dr. Smith truly says,

“It is those who tyrannise over them, who accuse them of laziness, duplicity, and natural perverseness of disposition. Of such persons we may be allowed to ask, ‘Have they ever afforded the Indian any rational encouragement to honesty and industry? Have they ever, by fair dealing, persevered in the experiment of deserving the confidence, of conciliating the affections, or of calling forth the kindly sympathies of these humbler sons of the soil? What virtue, except patience, were they permitted to disclose under Spanish oppression (would it were mitigated under the patriot system), when their masters supplied them with the necessaries of life just on what terms they pleased, and when the Indians could realise no property, however much they redoubled their toil, for in general the fruit of their labour was not their own?’”

The Peruvian aborigines are for the most part an agricultural people: they live more by tilling the ground than by pasturage or other means.

“Many of the modern villages in the temperate climate of the interior were, not many years ago, large farms, possessed by Europeans or their Creole descendants; but the labourers, set free at the revolution in consequence of the confiscation of the goods and property of their fugitive or ruined masters, have continued to cultivate the land for their own maintenance, till by degrees their families have swelled into villages, and at length assumed the important character of municipalities. With a few years of undisturbed peace, and exemption from undue exactions, small villages may thus arise and become considerable towns, wherever the locality happens to afford sufficient scope for

* As trees of sufficient size for the purposes required are not always at hand, we have seen near a hundred men exhaust their strength in dragging a tree by the means of lassos from deep ravines and hollows. This waste of power might be easily avoided by the help of the pulley, with which they are unacquainted; but they show great skill in the application and management of the lasso, and, when arranged for the tug, their efforts are roused by a song, of which the chorus is “*Huasca runa!*”—Men, to the lasso!—*Smith's Peru.*

cultivation. But as it often occurs that the Indian hamlet is erected on a pinnacle, or on the brow of a hill, around which there is but little suitable soil for the spread of agricultural industry, the consequence is that the father divides and subdivides the same piece of ground among the rising members of his progeny, till at length the means of subsistence become too scanty for the support of the whole family, and, the supernumeraries must seek employment in the mines or elsewhere, as they best may."—*Smith's Peru*.

The arts are little needed by Indians who construct their own huts, and who, with the exception of coarse felt hats, make their own clothes, such as wide trousers or breeches open at the knee, a shirt, a vest, a jacket, and over all a poncho, with sandals of raw hide. In cold localities, as Cerro Pasco, they wear warm woollen stockings and a jacket; not omitting the poncho, which is the indispensable covering by day as well as by night throughout the Sierra. The impediments to the increase of the population of the aboriginal race are the occasionally destructive effects of epidemic diseases, and among the mines in cold regions, an excessive use of spirituous liquors. In the temperate valleys which intervene between the coast and the Cordilleras this vice is by no means so prevalent as at the mines, where money circulates, and all temptation is to be encountered. Licentiousness is usually stated as a further source of depopulation among all classes and castes in Peru: but Dr. Smith avers that,

"Whatever be the true explanation of the fact, we think that evils springing from such fountains of impurity show themselves comparatively little in the Indian constitution; and though strict regularity of conduct cannot be claimed on the part of the Indian family, yet the modesty of their ancient *mamaconas* is still remembered among them; and it is a characteristic which to this day honourably distinguishes the Indians from their more cultivated masters, that with them conjugal infidelity is discouraged, punished, and felt to be a crime."

Incessant warfare and anarchy are as destructive and desolating to the aborigines of Peru, and to the prosperity of the country, as was that of the mines, and manufactories or "obrages," under the Spanish rule. A standing army has become an establishment, as an instrument of despotic and military power, and licentiousness, destroying the true sources of population, the domestic virtues, and domestic habits. It is remarked of the aboriginal Peruvians, that although they have, since the discomfiture of their last bold attempt under Amaru Tupac, endured oppression with silent meekness, they are tenderly alive to feelings of domestic tenderness, and to the natural ties of kindred or of country. These feelings are lamentable, when they are violently seized upon to recruit the army. In the latter condition, wherever the will of the military usurper of the day leads or drives them, they are known to sigh and mourn over the loss of the peaceful freedom which they enjoyed previously,—when they herded their flocks or cultivated their maize, pumpkins, and other simple articles of food. Dr. Smith relates some interesting facts respecting the Peruvians, who were compelled to serve in the *Patriot* (?) army. He says:

"In a hospital, on the coast, we have seen some of these poor fellows unable to speak a sentence of Spanish to the physician who prescribed for their relief; and, in a few extreme instances, despair sunk the powers of life, and a hopeless love of home exhausted their spirits. We have seen one very young lad thus affected who refused food and

medicine, until in silent sorrow he expired, a victim to nostalgia, or a love of home, and a broken heart. These hapless beings, whose devotedness to early attachment and associations bespeaks the warmth and fidelity of their affections, though cherished under a cold and apparently a passionless exterior, we found to be indeed reserved, but sagacious; and, when not under any unusual excitement, their minds, though not cheerful, were serene. Their exterior mien always struck us as solemn, and even sad; but this may be partly the effect of the awfully grand and sublime scenery so familiar to their view, which imparts a solemn and contemplative turn to the thoughts of the mountaineer, and influences his moral feelings in such a manner as stamps a certain air of mental gravity on his general deportment and expression. As an individual, the Indian is timid, and he will sooner take a cuff than give one; but when they assemble for mutual support, then indeed they are seen to fight most valiantly, and, like tame oxen, when the blood of one of their number is shed, they all become fearfully courageous. Bold and bloody battles we have seen between strong parties of the native miners in Cerro Pasco, armed for the combat with slings, stones, and clubs. At festivals, too, when roused by drink or enraged by jealousy, they lacerate and maul each other; and the meek-looking, dumpy Indian woman becomes equally exasperated and vehement if in her quarrels any one should cut away a tress of her long and coarse black hair; for the cutting of these tresses is an odious mark of female dishonour, to which women, of every caste in the land—except the woolly-headed blacks and mulattoes, on whom nature has not bestowed these ornaments,—are most acutely and painfully sensitive.*

“From the beagle courage of the Indian, who, like these gentle animals, fights better in company with others than singly, his military character stands very high; and a regiment of Indians when conducted by gallant officers, as was the case during the war of Peruvian independence, are sure to prove indomitably brave and hardy.”

It is a well-known fact that the dark Zamboes of the sea-coast region, when marching as soldiers, and driven onwards up the Sierra, will sink under fatigue, cold, and privations, which are never experienced in the warm and humid low districts. The native Peruvian, with a *pouch full of coca*, and a bag of roasted maize, marches boldly over the heights, and along precipices as steep as any on which the llama can maintain its footing.

In each village in the mountain valleys, the whites and Mestizoes have “padrinos,” or protectors, of their own caste, holding some authority as captain of volunteers, governor, or alcalde, or more subordinate post, but the Peruvian or Inca native, who cultivates a patch of land, and who labours quietly to rear his family, is liable to and experiences constant oppression. To recruit the armed bands of a Gamara, or other military usurper, the natives of Inca race are torn from their homes or dragged from the caves and fastnesses where they have sought concealment. This cruel injustice is practised towards native races in all the Spanish republics.

Every new levy of conscripts is bound like galley slaves, “and then driven along,” says Dr. Smith, “hopeless and helpless, from the recesses and glens of the interior to the coast, or elsewhere, as circumstances may require, there to die of ague or dysentery, or, if they survive the usual effects of great changes of climate and diet, to be harshly trained for the exercise of war.”

The sixth article of the constitution of Peru suspends the rights of citizenship

* It was a punishment which in certain cases the law of Spain inflicted upon female delinquents, to cut off their hair, and sometimes shave their eyebrows. This, we understand, was by the common executioner,—hence the sense of disgrace.

to the notoriously vagrant, the gambler, the drunkard, and the married man who, without cause, abandons his wife, or who is divorced on account of his own misconduct. The rich or influential can easily evade this law, but a peculiar oppression is inflicted on the Inca, who is arrested on the alleged ground of being "mal casado," or cohabiting with a woman to whom he has not been previously married by a Roman Catholic priest. It is not impartial justice that he should be punished in this manner for a delinquency which is almost authorised by the practice of his superiors. These poor mountain Incas join together, at an early age, in an union as binding as a marriage is by a Roman Catholic priest; the latter ceremony is, however, not evaded by the Peruvians, when they can either afford to pay the expense, or avail themselves of the opportunity. But to do so the priest must first be paid *his fees*. The poor agricultural Peruvian of the Sierra finds it difficult to provide himself with his coca,* a hoe, and a maschetto, or chopping-knife,—the tools that he usually works with. It is, therefore, almost an impossibility for him to save as many dollars as would enable him to pay even the lowest rate of marriage fees. Not being able to pay the priest for marrying him in the Roman Catholic ceremonial, he thinks it can be no great harm to imitate the Christians of Spanish race around him, whose example ought to be worthy of imitation: and, ignorant of the language which Scripture addresses to his conscience, he contracts a marriage sanctioned by the custom of his nation, though not by the Catholic religion—for *this he is outlawed!!*

It requires, at the same time, great labour for him to pay the capitation tax, from which even the superannuated are not always exempt; yet the treasury professes not to compel the infirm and aged to pay this odious tax. The non-Catholic married outlaw is certainly not exempted.

In order to pay this tax they are often obliged to borrow, for which their labour is mortgaged, and they are in consequence often virtually made slaves for the remainder of life. After death the sons are made to take upon themselves the burden under which the father sank into his grave. To recapitulate the oppressions imposed upon, and the sufferings endured by, the Peruvian Incas, would require a separate work.

They are, without any protection, the victims of arbitrary petty governors

* "The coca leaf is to the Indian of the interior a necessary of life, which he uses from time to time to renovate his energy; in the intervals of labour he often sits down to *chaccha*, or to refresh himself by masticating coca seasoned with a very little quick-lime, which he always carries about his person in a little gourd. According to the Indian, the lime counteracts the natural tendency of the coca to give rise to visceral obstructions. Used in moderate quantity, the coca, when fresh and good, increases nervous energy, removes drowsiness, enlivens the spirits, and enables the Indian to bear cold, wet, great bodily exertion, and even want of food, to a surprising degree, with apparent ease and impunity. Taken to excess, it is said to occasion tremor in the limbs, and, what is worse, a gloomy sort of mania. But such dire effects must be of rare occurrence; since, living for years on the borders of the Montana, and in constant intercourse with persons accustomed to frequent the coca plantations, and with Indian yanacones or labourers, all of whom, whether old or young, masticated this favourite leaf, we never had an opportunity of witnessing a single instance in which the coca-chewer was affected with mania or tremor."—*Dr. Smith's Peru.*

alcaldes, village captains, and military despots, who are destroying this splendid country. The Inca race, which forms the great majority of the Peruvian population, are insecure in their persons and property; they are forced to be submissive in character, by being driven to degraded morals, when torn from their homes to become the vassals of civil and religious bondage.

The curates, who reside in the mountain valleys, are aware of the feelings cherished by the Peruvian race, who believe that the time will arrive when the aboriginal inhabitants of the hills or mountain regions of Peru shall be made to know their own political rights and physical strength,—that they will then be commanded by bold and sagacious captains of their own race, and that they will successfully avenge their wrongs on all “advenedizos” (exotics), their white oppressors.*

There are powerful tribes of independent, and unconquered, aboriginal nations in the more remote parts of Peru, Bolivia, New Granada, Venezuela, the upper parts of Brazil, and the country watered by the Rio Plata, and the Amazon and the tributaries of those rivers. They are in very different circumstances to the conquered nations. All would join in extirpating the Spanish race. But they do not as yet possess the intelligence or the spirit of organisation.

CHAPTER XXI.

AGRICULTURE AND LIVE STOCK.

THE temperate climate of the *Valles* admits of the growth of European grain, maize, and rice; the grasses and fruit trees of Europe succeed; sugar, wine, and distilled brandy constitute articles for home use and for export. In the elevated districts of Montana the cerealia and fruits of Europe are grown, and the valleys produce tropical products: the forests on the eastern declivity of the Andes, yield cinchona bark, copaiva balsam, copal, wax, yellow and black; indigo grows spontaneously. The Indians of the plains collect from the forests vanilla, sarsaparilla, copaiva, copal, caoutchouc, and several gums and resins for export.

Live Stock.—Cattle, mules, and horses are reared, chiefly on the extensive pasture grounds along mountain slopes. On the elevated ranges and table-lands

* “The whites have already an example of retribution in La-paz, where every white man was massacred. The Indians are said to indulge in the hope of yet seeing a prince of their own race on the throne; and such has been their well-founded and now habitual mistrust of the whites, that they have never revealed where all their own treasures and those of the Incas, which were buried after the death of Atahualpa, are to be found. This is a secret to every one but a chosen few of the caciques. A few years before the commencement of the war of independence in Peru, a rising took place among the Indians of some of the inland provinces, under a cacique named Pomacagua; but this insurrection was soon suppressed. The fact of Pomacagua’s being acquainted with the hiding-place of the regal treasure alluded to, and his offer to reveal it to save his life, was not believed by the unrelenting Ramires, and he was shot.”—*Smith*.

of Titicaca and Pasco, llamas are used as beasts of burden; and each carry about seventy pounds. Sheep are pastured in the colder districts.

Agriculture is not only in a rude state, but it would rather appear to deteriorate than improve since the Peruvian independence of Spanish domination. In the descriptive sketches of the country we have noticed the cultivation of some parts. The valley of Huanuco, is one of the most productive maize districts. It also produces wheat, beans, and other vegetables and grasses. This valley and the plains of Lagamarca, and other rather elevated districts are subject to frosts which occasionally injure the crops; although the wheat crops, considering the mode of culture, are generally good. Sugar is produced at Huylas, Huanuco, and other places.

The agriculture of Huanuco, though alluring to the eye, which only views its rich and waving fields enclosed with fences of mud, and hedges of the Indian fig, and aloe or maguey plants, is in every way defective as a branch of industry. Dr. Smith, who practically made himself acquainted with the subject of Peruvian agriculture, informs us,

“The fields owe their luxuriance to nature rather than to man, except in the single advantage of water, which he often directs and applies to them. Manure is a thing never thought of; and the ground seldom requires it, though we see the same spot year after year under crop; but much of the soil which is considered poor might be rendered fertile, in so favourable a climate, if the people would only take the trouble of cleaning out their large cattle-pens once a year; but this would be to diverge from their accustomed routine, which they dislike to forsake. The implements of husbandry are of the rudest kind. The plough, which is slight, and single-handed, is constructed merely of wood, without mould-board, which we have seen a one-handed person manage with perfect dexterity. The ploughshare is a thick iron blade, only tied when required for use by a piece of thong, or lasso, on the point of the plough, which divides the earth very superficially. Where the iron is not at hand, as frequently happens, the poor peasant uses, instead, a share made of hard iron-wood that grows in the Montana. Harrows they have, properly speaking, none; they sometimes use large clumsy rakes instead; and we have seen them use a green bough of a tree dragged over the sown ground, with a weight upon it to make it scratch the soil. In room of the roller, of which they never experienced the advantage, they break down the earth in the field intended for cane-plants, after it had got eight or ten ploughings and cross-ploughings, with the heel of a short-handled hoe, which they call ‘lampa;’ a tool which they use with great dexterity in weeding the cane-fields and clearing aqueducts. For smoothing down the clods of earth, we have seen some Indians use a more antiquated instrument. It consisted of a soft, flat, and round stone, about the size of a small cheese, which had a hole beaten through its centre by dint of blows with a harder and pointed stone. To the stone thus perforated they fixed a long handle, and as they swung it about, they did great execution in the work of ‘cuspiando’ or field-levelling.”

Lucern or alfalfa is daily cut down, and used green to feed the numerous cattle and the oxen for the plough and sugar-mills. The scythe is not used. The grass is cut with a sickle. The cattle are fed on irrigated pastures during day, but at night with cut grass in corrals or pens.

Potato-ground is broken up on the face of steeps with deep narrow spades, with long handles. In the same manner the soil is turned up by those who have

neither plough nor oxen, for maize on the temperate flats on the hill-sides, and in the thickets near mountain streams, where the soil is usually fertile, and materials for enclosing abound. Holes are made in the ground with a sharp-pointed stick, where the seed is dropped secure from birds, and when planted in virgin soil, it yields a luxuriant harvest. The white-grained maize is sown in preference to the yellow (*morocho*), as it makes, when toasted, the best "*cancha*," which the poor Indian uses instead of bread; when boiled it makes the sweetest "*mote*," or maize simply boiled; it is also said to yield the most agreeably-tasted *chica*, or beer, which the Peruvians brew in their huts, whenever they have a little surplus maize. They also make a kind of beer from the fermented juice of the maize-stalks which they press between small wooden rollers. Cattle are also fed on dry maize-leaves and stubble, which are considered more nutritious than either lucern or the tops of the sugar-cane.

Aji, or *pimento*, is generally cultivated around the Indian dwellings and gardens in the warm valleys, and with it they season nearly all kinds of food.

The sugar-mills in the valley of Huanuco are, the greater number of them, made of wood, and moved by oxen. On the larger estates brass rollers are used; but with a single exception, on the estate of Andaguaylla, where Dr. Smith was concerned in erecting a water-mill for the purpose of grinding sugar-cane, the proprietors adhere to the old practice of working with oxen by day and by night throughout the year, barring accidents, and feasts or holy-days. He says,—

"The beautiful hacienda or estate of Quicacan is a model of industry and method, after the fashion of the country; and the most distinguished family of Echegoyen have, in Colpa-grande, the finest cane-estate, as far as we know, in the interior of Peru. It extends for nine or ten miles along the fertile banks of the river, from the city of Huanuco towards the ascents that lead into the Montana.

"Respecting Huanuco," he continues, "although the principal city or capital of the department to which it belongs, we have to observe, that the consumption of its agricultural produce, as well as its own internal prosperity, depends on the mineral seat of Cerro Pasco. When the population of Cerro rises to 10,000 or 12,000, every article of Huanuco produce is in high demand; but when, from any cause, the mines are not wrought, or when these are inundated from defective drainage, and the hands employed in working them are fewer in number, the Huanuquenos and other neighbouring agriculturists are greatly discouraged or actually ruined; because, deprived of this outlet for their produce, they cannot undertake the expense of sending sugar and spirits on mules to the coast. The consequence is, that they are frequently poor in the midst of plenty; the owners of extensive herds of sheep on the high pasture-lands, whose wool is of little value to them, as it cannot pay for mule or llama carriage to the coast; and the scanty produce of the looms of the interior have little estimation, as the ruined '*obrages*,' or manufactories, now amply testify. The shuttle is, moreover, nearly put at rest by the cheaper articles of warm woollen as well as cotton clothing continually introduced from the stores of our English manufacturers."—*Smith's Peru*.

A staple article, supplied by Huanuco to Cerro Pasco, is the *coca-leaf*, from the Montana, distant about fifteen leagues from the city. The indigo growers in the contiguous Montana have nearly forsaken its cultivation from want of funds or enterprise.

Much of the fruit of the Huanuco orchards is eaten at the tables of the in-

habitant of Cerro; and in the convents are made excellent sweetmeats, highly valued, in the surrounding country, as presents rather than as articles of commerce.

Several lands formerly belonging to convents were, after the revolution, appropriated as endowments of the college of Huanuco.

The Montana regions, which are watered by the Huallaga, Ucayali, Marañon, and their numerous tributaries, are but very imperfectly explored. They combine the most fertile but uncultivated soils in the valleys.

From May to November the sun shines powerfully in the Montana, and consequently the soil, where it is cleared of wood—as in the valley of Chinchao—becomes so dry that its surface cracks and opens for some depth, but underneath it retains its humidity, and requires no irrigation. From November to May it rains sometimes for six or seven days without intermission.

In the rivers of Peru alligators, tortoises, and a variety of fish abound. The manatee, sometimes called *pexebuey*,* feeds among the grass on the banks of the rivers.

The forest productions of the Montana, considered as articles of commerce or usefulness, are chiefly, cedar, and chonta or ebony, mahogany, walnut, and almond-tree. Edible herbs and roots, except the potato and yuca, are little cultivated; but coffee, plantains, and sugar-cane, of which a variety called the blue or azul grows luxuriantly. The sugar-cane comes to maturity earlier than in other parts of Peru, and yields an annual crop at a very low cost of production.

The fertile valley of Chinchao is renowned for its *coca* plantations. Some farms in Huanuco cultivate frijoles, or beans, for the use of the coca-gatherers: rice is also grown along the low rich banks of the great rivers, and maize is cultivated, wherever it will ripen as a necessary of life.

In the Montana, and in other parts of Peru, *chicha* is made from maize, but the natives here make a drink called *másata*, not known in more civilised parts of the country, produced by chewing the yuca or maize,† &c., and then leaving it to ferment, when, according to the quantity of water added to it, the fermented juice will be found of greater or less intoxicating power.

Indigo and tobacco is of Montana growth.

Cotton grows almost naturally, and requires no artificial assistance for its luxuriant growth. It is spun and wove into cloths of various texture by the Indians. Lemons, limes, oranges, citrons, and other cooling fruit, are also productions of those parts.

The pine-apple is very abundant, as well as of delicious flavour, though it

* From *pexe*, fish. *buey*, ox.

† See account of this liquor, and how made, in the description of the Mosquito Territory.

grows wild: and among the articles of spontaneous growth in the Montana, contiguous to Huanuco, we may enumerate cacao or cocoa, cinnamon, guaiacum, vanilla, black wax, storax, dragon's blood, Maria oil, gum grana, balsam of copaiba, copal, and many other gums, balsams, and resins. Cinchona and sarsaparilla abound in great quantity.

Milk, among the pastoral huts of the high grazing country, is used for making cheese, it is not often drank as an article of nutriment, save by those who live in small round booths. These pastoral huts are scattered over the distant plains and ranges of the mountains, throughout the "*estancias*," on the hilly pasture-lands, for feeding cattle and sheep.

The poor Inca, who owns a few horned cattle, will endure hunger rather than kill for food one of his herd. He who owns sheep, however, kills one occasionally for the meat and "*caldo*,"—*mutton tea*: vegetables being scarce, to make *chupe*, a kind of broth used by the corn-growers. The inhabitants of the snowy region, or elevated valleys of the Andes, are distinguished by their warm clothing, broad chests, and fresh complexions. They descend from the high cold district to the temperate and corn-growing country, to barter for vegetable productions, fresh mutton, skinned and free from offal, which they carry on the back of asses. Mutton, like beef, is dried in the sun, and stored for use by the inhabitants of the warm districts. This dried meat is called by them "*charque*," and by the English jerked beef.

When the inhabitants of Tarma have sown their fields, they usually spend, according to Dr. Smith, an entire month in visiting and festivity:—

"And they say of their neighbours of Jauja (eight leagues to the south of them), whose rejoicing is at harvest-home, that they distrust Providence, while they themselves piously rejoice and rest their hope in the Giver of their harvest; hence, they infer the wheat crops of the Jaujinos (whose granaries are in favourable years the most plentifully stored in all Peru) are often blighted and frosted, while the Tarmenian barley always flourishes."

The pine-apples and coffee of the Montana and hacienda of Vitoc, near Tarma, are very good.

The centre land of Peru is watered by streams and mountain torrents. They are subject, often suddenly, to rise and inundate the low grounds.

The food of the poor, as well as of the rich, constitutes an index to the eatable products of a country, and one may, therefore, include some observation on this head in concluding our sketches of Peruvian agriculture; which may be considered to apply, in many respects, to all the countries of Western South America, between Panama and Chile.

A common dish of food on the Sierra consists of potatoes, sliced and boiled in water or milk, with an addition of eggs, cheese, and sometimes butter: but this nutritious dish is often represented by *yaco-chupe*, or water *chupe*, consisting of potatoes sliced and boiled in water, with the addition of a little salt, and a of wild mint, as an antidote against flatulency.

In Lima the articles of diet are far more varied than in the country districts. Maize is far more generally cultivated than any other grain. Wheat is chiefly imported from Chile and other foreign states. The food of the poor on the sea-coast is cooked camote and yuca roots : both are very nutritive and wholesome. In Lima animal food is even profusely consumed, and poultry in incredible quantities. It is the food of the sick, infirm, and convalescent, who constitute a numerous portion of the inhabitants of the capital, all of whom have chicken or chicken soup at least once a day. Geese and ducks are of low repute for eating, pigeons and turkeys are abundant in the daily market. Fish is usually good and abundant ; the fishermen of the coast are described as the most robust of Peruvian natives.

The number of fat pigs killed is estimated considerably above twenty thousand yearly. The consumption of lard and fried pork (*chicharones*) is consequently great. Dr. Smith says the "mantequero," or lard and swine-dealer, is, after that of the baker and *lottery-man* (*suertero*), one of the most lucrative in the capital. From forty to fifty head of oxen, and from three to four hundred sheep, are slaughtered daily for the Lima market: the beef is good; the mutton of inferior quality.

Pastry and sweetmeat criers parade the Lima streets; a cook-stand, with fried pork and fish, stands at the corners of streets and squares. Poor families of genteel pretensions, who from necessity hire out their slaves, are seldom at the expense of cooking at home, and have their food from these cheap cook-stands.

Masamorerias are pap-shops, common in Lima. Of the sweet paps there are as many varieties as there are materials, viz., paps of peas, beans, rice, maize flour, arrow-root, starch, &c. These are boiled in water, with or without fruit or some vegetable acid, and sweetened with sugar, molasses, or coarse sugar, "chancaca," Masamora may be considered as much a Limenian dish as roast-beef in England, or baked fowls in Vienna.

Most of the other Limenian dishes are sodden in lard, excepting the common fowl, the pigeon, turkey, and a dish called the "puchero," consisting of a variety of fruit and vegetables, with pieces of meat of different kinds boiled together and served up in a great dish or plate.

The soups and vegetable dishes are strongly seasoned with *agi* or Chile pepper.

The native dark races are said by Dr. Smith to be much more robust in form, and hardier in constitution than strangers to the climate;—

"And many of them drink 'aguardiente,' or uncoloured cane spirits, in great quantity, and with less immediate ill effect than one would expect. Their constant use of such excitants as ardent spirits and fermented beverages called 'chichas,' with animal food and *agi*, may possibly be a principal reason why these persons, whenever they are seized with inflammatory complaints, stand general bleeding better than others of their

own caste fed upon sango, a name applied to a sort of mash made with maize-meal and sweet potatoes; but persons of European descent, with skin so much more delicate than the darker races in Peru, and endowed with a more susceptible nervous system, suffer much more readily from atmospherical vicissitudes; and their digestive organs and powers of assimilation being comparatively weak, those irregularities, borne by the negro and Zambo with comparative impunity, are to the white man, whose organisation is not so suitable as theirs for a warm and relaxing climate, the frequent cause of various disorders of the bowels, as indigestion, cholera morbus, or dysentery."

The Peruvians of the coast are not supplied with fruits. The fruits produced in the orchards in and about Lima are as follow, according to a list by Mr. Mathews, an English botanist, viz.,

"*January*.—Grapes begin to ripen; and also apricots, and a few pears.

"*February*.—Grapes, pears in abundance, apricots; peaches begin to ripen; lucumas scarce; figs.

"*March*.—Grapes in abundance; pears scarce; peaches in abundance; apples begin to ripen; lucumas in abundance; figs in abundance.

"*April*.—Apples in abundance; quinces, ceruela de frayle (*spondias dulcis*), and cerasas (*malpighia glandulosa*), patillas (*psidium lineatum*), and guavas; figs scarce.

"*May*.—The same as April; a few grapes are seen in the market, brought from the southward; cherimollas.

"*June*.—Cherimollas and guanavanas; sweet and sour oranges; a few apples.

"*July*.—The same as June, with the exception of apples and limes; sweet lemons and sour lemons begin to ripen.

"*August*.—The same as July; but slight demand for oranges this month.

"*September*.—Lucumas, paltas, and the fruits of the previous month.

"*October*.—Same as September; but a great demand for limes and sweet lemons.

"*November and December*.—During these two months there is a great demand for sweet and sour lemons, for *frescos*, or cooling drinks. Sweet oranges rarely remain good after the middle of November."

Plantains are fit for food all the year, but are most abundant during the hot months. The pepino is much eaten during December, January, and February. In the months of April and May, the pulp surrounding the seeds in the pod of the pacay are much eaten.

In addition to the above, the melon, and sandia, or musk and water melon, are cultivated in the neighbourhood of Lima, and are to be seen for sale in large heaps at the corners of the streets. They are consumed with avidity in the hot month of February. Very good olives grow in the Valley of the Rimac, and ripen in February and March. Strawberries and "tunas," or Indian figs, of inferior quality, grow in Lima; but the market is supplied with these fruits, and of the best quality, from the neighbouring valley of Santa Ulaya. The pine-apple does not ripen spontaneously in Lima. That eaten in this city grows on the eastern side of Peru, and occasionally are brought from Moro.

CHAPTER XXII.

MANUFACTURES, GOVERNMENT, ETC.

THE Spanish system, which limited supply, forced the inhabitants of Peru to make some indispensable articles. Coarse cotton and woollen stuffs worn by the aborigines and by the Mestizoes, are either made by themselves, or in the valleys of the Marañon, Jauja, and at Cuzc6. Iron utensils are made at Caxamarca. At Lima, Arequipa, and Cuzc6, gold and silver vessels, utensils, trinkets, and ornaments, are made.* None of these are exported. Coarse cotton cloth, called tucuya, made in Moyobamba and Tarapoto, is exported to those parts of Brazil adjacent to the Amazon.

Trade.—The internal trade is obstructed, or rendered difficult, by the want of roads. Since the independence of Peru, a trade has been opened from the eastern districts, with the Brazilian districts adjacent to the Rio Amazon. This trade was chiefly from the valley of the Rio Huallaga, and consists mostly of cotton, gums, resins, wax, sarsaparilla, and tucuya. The maritime commerce of Peru is chiefly with the western coasts, and other republics of America, with Mexico, Central America, Guayaquil, and Chile, to which countries sugar, wine, brandy, salt, and some other articles of minor value are exported. Gold and silver, and the saltpetre of Iquique, Arica, and Arequipa, are exported. Chinchilla fur, vicuna and sheep-wool, and chinchona bark, are the principal articles exported to Europe.—(For the Foreign Trade and Navigation of Peru, see Statistics of the Spanish Republics hereafter.)

Government.—The constitution of Peru was framed in 1828. It was to be based on that of the United States. But it will be seen that it has, like that of all the Spanish American republics, in administrative practice, retained most of what existed under Spain, with a strong tendency towards the centralised system of the police of France. The legislative body consists of a senate and a chamber of deputies, the members of which are chosen by the people.† The executive is

* "In Tarma, they make *ponchos*, or loose cloaks, of great beauty and fineness; and, on the colder table-lands, warm but coarse blankets and ponchos, &c., are still made by the Indians. In the valleys, goat-skins are made into cordovans; cow-hide is made into saddle-bags, and almofrezes, or travelling-cases for bed and bedding; mats, too, are manufactured from rushes, and are very generally used as carpeting, under the name of *esteras*. But the work of silversmiths is generally in a rude state even in Pasco; for the fine filigree work, for which inland Peru is celebrated, is made, not in the department of Junin, but at Guamanga, in the department of Ayacucho—where the natives have also shown a decided talent for sculpture, though their works cannot be said to exhibit, as yet, much elegance or expression."—*Smith's Peru*.

† "The chamber of deputies is composed of representatives elected by the electoral colleges of provinces and parishes. The parochial electoral colleges are composed of all the citizens resident in the parish, congregated according to law. For every 200 individuals in a parish an elector is nominated; and in every village whose numbers entitle them to name an elector, or have a paro-

vested in the president, who likewise is chosen by the people for four years, and is assisted by a ministry, chosen by himself, and a council of state chosen by the legislature. The departments have the power of regulating their public and ecclesiastical affairs, without the interference of the general government,—to hold their departmental juntas, and to frame laws for their local territories; these laws require to be afterwards sanctioned by the *central legislature* to become law.

Departments.—The supreme political government of every *department* is vested in a prefect, under immediate *central* subordination to the president of the republic; that of every *province* answers to an *arrondissement* in France, and is intrusted to a *sub-prefect*, who is immediately subordinate to the prefect; that of the *districts* (say *Canton*) to a governor (*juge-de-paix*), who acknowledges the sub-prefect as his superior; and in every town, or Indian village (say *commune*), there is a still humbler officer called *alcalde* (say mayor), who acts under the orders of the governor, or *juge-de-paix*, of his district, and is intrusted with the ordinary routine of local police.

To fill the appointment of prefect, sub-prefect, or governor, it is required that the candidate should be an active citizen, not under thirty years of age, and *a man eminent for his probity.* (?)

The *duties* invested in such functionaries are,

1. To maintain public security and order in their respective territories.
2. To cause the articles of the political constitution, the laws enacted by congress, and the decrees and commands of the executive power, to be duly carried into effect.
3. To enforce the completion of sentences pronounced by the different tribunals and courts of justice.

To take care that the functionaries subordinate to each of them shall faithfully discharge their proper duties.

The prefects are charged with the economical administration of the affairs of state within their respective departments. They are restrained from interfering with, or in any degree *interrupting, the course of popular elections.* From preventing the meeting of the departmental juntas, or interfering with the free exercise of their functions. From taking any cognizance in judicial cases; *but, should public tranquillity urgently require that any individual should be taken up, a prefect may command his immediate arrest,—transferring the delinquent, accompanied with the grounds of having taken him into custody, to the judicial magistrate or judge, within the precise term of forty-eight hours.*

chial college, a municipal body is established with a right to superintend its own local interests, consistently with the laws and public good—and subject to the approbation of the departmental juntas. The electoral colleges of provinces are composed of parochial electors constituted according to law, and they elect deputies to congress in the proportion of one for every 20,000 inhabitants, or for a fractional number which exceeds 10,000. But the province in which the whole population does not come up to 10,000 inhabitants, will nevertheless name a deputy.”—*Smith's Peru.*

This power is found to be exercised to the total subversion of all civil liberty.

Departmental Juntas.—In every department a junta meets in its capital, composed of two members from each province. The functions of these juntas are to provide for administration of the provinces of the departments, and of the department itself. The members are elected after the same manner with those of the Congress or Chamber of Deputies.

The *prefects* of the departments open and preside at the annual sessions of the juntas, to report to them in writing on the state of the public affairs of their respective jurisdictions, and to suggest measures calculated to promote the general interests of the departments. Such as to propose, discuss, and agree about promoting the agricultural, mining, and other branches of industry in their respective provinces. To forward public education and instruction according to the system authorised by congress. To watch over charitable institutions; and, generally, to all that relates to the interior police of the departments, except that of public security. To present the amount of assessments of each department; and to ascertain the amount raised in the particular towns through their respective municipal authorities. To adjudge the number of recruits for the service of the army and navy which each province and district should provide. To exact that the chiefs of the national militia maintain good discipline in their corps, and that they shall be always ready for service. To compel the municipal corporations to discharge their duties, and to inform the prefects of such abuses as they may detect. To audit the accounts required of the municipalities, to make return annually of the funds of the towns and villages. To prepare every five years a statistical report on the department. To provide for the subjugation and civilisation of the aborigines on the frontiers of each department, and to *allure them within the pale of civilised society* by persuasive means. To take cognizance of the imports and exports of the departments, and to transmit their remarks to the home department, or *hacienda*. To apprise congress of any infraction of the constitution; and to elect *senators* from the lists presented by the provincial electoral colleges.*

If the administration of justice were conducted precisely on the foregoing system of government, Peru might be a happy and peaceful country. But the reverse is the general prevalence, and the consequence is, naturally, that the country is in a most unhappy and declining state.

Education.—The university of Lima, and other institutions for education, have been much applauded as schools of learning. There is little doubt, but that a fair share of merit must be attributed to them, and that among the higher classes under the Spanish rule there were, according to the ideas of their nation and their age, accomplished scholars as far as the course of instruction extended.

* See "La Constitucion Politica de la Republica Peruana," published in 1828.

Since the revolution, education appears to have been greatly neglected. With respect to common schools, the attempts appeared to have been unsuccessful, though not in all cases.

Dr. Smith observes on this head,—

“The failure implied on this occasion may possibly have been less the fault of the system than of those who offered to apply it; for it was remarked as very worthy the consideration of the honourable junta, that, in reference to many of the schools intended for the improvement of the indigenous or Indian race, wherein they were merely taught a jargon of Spanish which they could not comprehend, it were better for them to be left in an untutored state of mind than to be placed under the melancholy influence of such teachers as presided over them. These were represented to be so imbecile, and so unacquainted with the merest rudiments of reading, or so abandoned and drowned in vice, as to be persons utterly unfit to guide the mind of infancy and innocence into a proper path. The junta were therefore called upon by their prefect to appoint some better means of instruction, which might at once serve to improve the virtuous feelings of the individual, and promote the national cause of civilisation.”

Hospitals and Charitable Asylums.—In Huaras, as well as in Huanuco, there were formerly well-endowed hospitals, but these are now fallen into such decay for want of funds for their support, that very few invalids can be accommodated or relieved in them; and they are now generally much neglected in Lima.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE CITY OF LIMA.

WE shall conclude our description of the country which once formed the chief territory of the empire of the Incas, by a brief description, according to the best authorities, of the celebrated city of Lima.

LIMA the capital of the republic, stands in a beautiful valley, six miles from the sea, and 560 feet above its surface; the small River Rimac flows through it. The houses are tolerably built of adobes, or sun-dried bricks, canes, and wood; they are low, in order to stand the shocks of earthquakes, being seldom above two stories, with small balconies to the second floor, with generally an archway from the street, and with a strong door leading to a court within. The lower or ground floor is commonly used as store-rooms and stables, and all kinds of rubbish are stowed away on the tops. The staircase is generally spacious and handsome, and the apartments of the lodgers often adorned with common fresco paintings. For the climate these houses are, however, sufficiently well adapted. The cathedral, the palaces of government and of the archbishop, the university, and several colleges, and some churches are the most remarkable edifices. The population is estimated at about 70,000. There are several unimportant manufactures carried on,—and its trade in foreign merchandise, and

its exports of the produce of the mines, and of the interior, are through the nearly adjacent port of Callao.

Captain Wilkes, who had visited Lima in 1821, and afterwards as commander of the United States Exploring Expedition, in 1841, observes that he was struck with the change which had taken place since his former visit.

"Every thing now betokened poverty and decay : a sad change from its former splendour and wealth. This appearance was observed not only in the city, but also among the inhabitants. Whole families have been swept off, and their former attendants, or strangers, have become the possessors of their houses and property.

"The country has been a scene of commotion and revolution for the last twenty-five years, of which Lima was for a long time the centre. The fate of Lower Peru being entirely dependent on it, and the fortress of Callao, the alternate possessors have stripped it and its inhabitants in every way in their power. It may with truth be designated a declining city.

"The neglected walls and ruined tenements, the want of stir and life among the people, are sad evidences of this decay. The population is now said to be about forty-five thousand, although in former times it has been supposed to amount to as many as sixty-five or seventy thousand.

"The aspect of the city, especially a bird's-eye view from the neighbouring hills, gives to the eye of the stranger the appearance of ruins. There are few buildings that have the look of durability, and no new ones have been put up for the last forty years. The plan of the city combines more advantages than any other that could have been adopted for the locality. The streets are at right angles, and all sufficiently broad. Those which run with the declivity of the ground, north-west and south-east, have water flowing through their middle. The uses to which these streams are put, and the numerous buzzards that frequent them, give the stranger any other idea than that of cleanliness. The buzzards are protected by law, and may be seen fighting for their food in the gutters, regardless of passers-by ; or sitting on the tops of the houses, thirty or forty in a row watching for more food."

The *alemada* is situated on the north side of the city ; its centre is adorned with a number of fountains ; its walks are shaded with trees ; water flows through and refreshes its air. It is, therefore, a delightful promenade. In the evening it is much frequented, and its seats, which are of stone, are occupied by numbers of citizens. This is the best place to see the inhabitants enjoy their *cigarittas*, which they are constantly smoking. The dress of the ladies, however fitted to commit intrigue, is not adapted to the display of beauty.

Captain Wilkes says,

"A more awkward and absurd dress cannot well be conceived. It is by no means indicative of the wearer's rank, for frequently this disguise is ragged and tattered, and assumed under its most forbidding aspect to deceive, or carry on an intrigue, of which it is almost an effectual cloak.

"I never could behold these dresses without considering them as an emblem of the wretched condition of domestic society in this far-famed city.

"The *saya* and *manto* were originally intended as a retiring, modest dress, to mark reserve, to insure seclusion, and to enable ladies to go abroad without an escort. The general term for the wearers is *Tapada*, and they were always held sacred from insult. *Tapada* is likewise applied to a dress which is also frequently seen, viz., a shawl worn over the head, so as to cover the nose, mouth, and forehead. None but the most intimate friend can know the wearers, who frequent the theatres in this disguise. It is to be regretted, that it is now worn for very different purposes from its original intention. Intrigues of all kinds are said to be carried on under it. It enables the wearer to mix in all societies, and to frequent any place of amusement, without being known, and, even if suspected by her husband or relatives, the law of custom would protect her from disco-

very. In this dress, it is said, a wife will pass her own husband when she may be walking with her lover, and the husband may make love to his wife without being aware it is she.

"The saya is a silk petticoat, with numerous small vertical plaits, containing about thirty yards of silk, and costing fifty or sixty dollars. It is drawn in close at the bottom of the dress, so that the wearer is obliged to take very short steps (ten inches). It is a little elastic, and conforms to the shape, whether natural or artificial, from the waist down. The manto is a kind of cloak, of black silk. It is fastened to the saya at the waist, and brought over the head and shoulders from behind, concealing every thing but one eye, and one hand, in which is usually seen a cross, or whose fingers are well ornamented with jewels. Before the manto is arranged, a French shawl of bright colours is thrown over the shoulders, and brought between the openings of the manto in front, hanging down nearly to the feet. The loose saya is also much worn; this is not contracted at the bottom, and in walking has a great swing from side to side.

"The walk of the Lima ladies is graceful and pretty, and they usually have small feet and hands."

The houses are built of adobes, or wood.

The portales, or arcades, form the most attractive parts of Lima. At nearly all hours they are the most lively resort. They are built on two sides of the plaza. The ground-floor is occupied as shops, in which various goods and fancy articles are sold. Between the columns, next the plaza, sit lace and fringe workers; and before them are cooks, fresco-sellers, and others. Frying cakes, and fish, in the morning and late in the evening, seems to be one of the most brisk employments, the demand being remarkable.

The arcades are about five hundred feet long, paved with small stones, interlaid with the knuckle-bones of sheep, which produces a kind of mosaic pavement, in which is wrought the date of its foundation, 1799. This place for many hours of the day is the great resort of the populace.

The palace, formerly that of the viceroy, occupies the north side of the plaza. The lower part of it is now converted into a row of small shops, principally tinkers and small-ware dealers. On the east-side is the archbishop's palace and the cathedral.

The fountain in the centre of the plaza, of which much has been said, was erected in 1600, by Don Garcia Sarmiento Sotomayer, the then viceroy and captain-general of the kingdom. "El que bebe de la pila sequenda in Lima," is the usual saying. "He that drinks of the fountain will not leave Lima."

The cathedral is a stately, large edifice; most of its decorations are in bad taste. Formerly it was celebrated for riches in precious metals and stones.

Its great altar is composed of silver. In a chapel on one side of the building, there are portraits of all its archbishops but the one who, at the revolution, proved faithful to his sovereign; they all, except him, are interred in niches in the crypt, under the great altar. Most of the coffins are open, and exhibit the dried-up remains of the saints, clothed in leather jackets and shoes, which the sacristan will dispose of for a trifle. Two skulls and a hand were obtained by Captain Wilkes.

The market of Lima, kept in an open square, is well supplied. There are no

stalls: mats are used in their stead. The meat is spread in rows, and the vegetables heaped up in piles. The meat is cut with the grain, and into small pieces, to suit the purchasers; and poultry is cut up in a similar manner. The cooking establishments are in great request; stews, fries, and olla podridas, are in constant preparation.

Captain Wilkes observes,—

“The fried dishes seemed to claim their preference, if one could judge by the number in waiting. The expertness of the woman who officiated was truly wonderful, twisting and twirling the dough in her hand, placing it upon a stick, dipping it in the hot oil, and slipping it as soon as cooked dexterously into the dish for her customers. Then again was a frier of pancakes close by, equally expert. The variety of dishes cooking was surprising, and those who fried fish exhibited undoubted proofs of their freshness, by consigning them to the pan before they ceased to live.

“I was surprised at the variety of fish, meats, vegetables, and fruits; the latter particularly. These were in season, and included oranges, cherimoyers, pomegranates, paltas, plantains, bananas, papaws, granadillas, apples, figs, and ananas.

“The above are the usual articles crowded into the market, but were I to stop here, one-half would not be told. All sorts of goods, jewellery, cottons, woollens, laces, hardware, linen fabrics, handkerchiefs, shoes, slippers, hats, &c., are hawked about by pedlars with stentorian lungs, who, with the lottery vendors, with tickets, ink-horn, and pen, selling the tickets in the name of the Holy Virgin and all the saints, make an uproar that one can have little idea of without mixing in or witnessing it.”

The buildings of the convent of San Francisco cover six or seven acres of ground. In its days of monkish prosperity it was a magnificent establishment. Its chapels are still rich in gilding, carved work, &c., and the cloisters are adorned with beautiful fountains and flower-gardens. Part of it is now occupied as barracks, and the muskets are piled on the altars. It has been stripped of its riches and deserted. The gallery of paintings contains, it is said, several Murillos. The remains of its former splendour seem to justify what Father Feuille asserted, “that there was nothing of the kind to compare with it in Europe.” There are few friars at present, formerly it maintained 500, living in luxury and licentiousness.

The *public library* of Lima contains rare books, both in French and Spanish, taken from the Jesuits' college and convents. They are in good order, and among them are numerous manuscripts beautifully illuminated.

A public museum was lately commenced, by forming a collection of Peruvian antiquities, some native birds, and the portraits of all the viceroys, from Pizarro down. At the cabildo, or city hall, are to be seen some of the archives of Lima. The signatures of the old viceroys and governors, and, among others, that of Pizarro, is shown. Few of them could write, and they adopted *the rubrica*, by placing the finger of the left hand on the parchment, and making a flourish on each side of it, the clerk filling in the name. This method is said to be generally adopted among the South Americans in signing official documents, and considered as binding as if the name was written.

All classes of people are addicted to the smoking of cigars, even in carriages

and at the dinner-table. It does not seem to be considered by any one as unpleasant, and foreigners have adopted the custom.

Captain Wilkes says,—

“There does not appear to exist any accurate account of the population of Peru; but it is generally believed to have decreased, particularly as regards the whites and negroes. The best information gives but little over 1,000,000 inhabitants, viz., about 125,000 whites; natives and *cholos*, 800,000; with 90,000 negroes and ranchos, of whom about 35,000 are slaves. This does not vary much from the number given by the geographies forty years ago. The country appears, from all accounts, not only to have decreased in population, but to have diminished in wealth and productiveness. A much less proportion of the soil is now cultivated than formerly under the ‘children of the sun.’”*

There are half a dozen newspapers published in Lima, two of which appear

* “The proportion which the different sexes, castes, and conditions, &c., of the inhabitants of Lima bore to one another in the year 1818, may be learned from the subjoined summary taken from the census of Juan Baso, Oidor:—

Summary of Men and Castes.		Summary of Men by Wards.		General Amount of the whole.	Summary of Women by Wards.		Summary of Women by Castes.	
	number.		number.	number.		number.		number.
Secular Spaniards.	8,406	1st Ward.....	6,841		1st Ward...	7,975	{ Secular Spanish women.	{ 9,455
Priests and Friars.	1,331	2nd „	5,882	27,545	2nd „ ...	6,090	Nuns.	506
Mestizoes	2,660	3rd „	6,389		3rd „ ...	7,420	Mestiza women.	3,262
Indians	1,561	4th „	3,512	26,553	4th „ ...	4,756	Indian women.	1,731
Free Negroes and Pardos.....	4,220	{ Cercado, the higher part of the city so called... }			Cercado....	312	{ Black and swarthy free women.	{ 7,715
Id. slaves.....	4,705	In wards.....	4,662				Id. slaves.	3,884
Total.....	22,883		27,545	54,098		26,553		26,553

“To convey a more particular idea of the different races of people in Lima, as these are divided and subdivided, and change in colour by intermixing with one another, we shall add tables on the subject, given by Dr. Unanue, in his work titled ‘Observaciones sobre el clima de Lima:’—

Intermarriages.		Offspring.	Colour.	Mixture.
Men.	Women.			
European.....	European.....	Creole.....	White.....	
Creole.....	Creole.....	Creole.....	White.....	
White.....	Indian.....	Mestizo.....	White.....	
White.....	Mestiza.....	Creole.....	White.....	
White.....	Negress.....	Mulatto.....		$\frac{1}{2}$ negro, $\frac{1}{2}$ white.
White.....	Mulatta.....	Quarteron.....		$\frac{1}{4}$ negro, $\frac{3}{4}$ white.
White.....	Quarterona.....	Quinteron.....		$\frac{1}{8}$ negro, $\frac{7}{8}$ white.
White.....	Quinterona.....	White.....		
Negro.....	Indian.....	Chino.....		

“The same author gives the following as the retrograde intermarriages, by which the offspring are of more dingy appearance, and made to recede more and more from white, which he takes as the standard primitive colour:—

Marriages.		Offspring.	Colour.
Men.	Women.		
Negro.....	Negress.....	Negro.....	
Negro.....	Mulatta.....	Zambo.....	3-4th negro, 1-4th white.
Negro.....	Zamba.....	Dark Zambo.....	7-8th negro, 1-8th white.
Negro.....	Dark Zambo.....	Negro.....	15-16th negro, 1-16th white.
Negro.....	China.....	Zambo.....	

daily. They are small sheets—but have some control over public opinion—few or no advertisements are seen in them. These are deemed unnecessary in Lima, all the amusements, such as the theatre, cock-fighting, &c., are placarded on the portals.

Most of the buildings in Lima have suffered more or less from earthquakes.

Chorrillos, three leagues to the south of Lima, is the favourite watering-place, and frequented during the sultry months by gambling parties and persons of rank and fashion from town. It is a small village of fishermen, constructed of cane and mud. The Indian owners of the shades, and of some houses or *ranchos*, let them to the bathers during the bathing season; and some persons either take these for a term of years, or construct light houses for themselves, which they fit up tastefully, and pass the summer months in them in the midst of gaiety and mirth. Chorrillos is sheltered from the south-western blast by an elevated promontory, called the *Moro-Solar*, which rises like a gigantic *guaca* overlooking the numerous monuments, or Pagan temples, of this name which are scattered over the naturally rich, but now in a great measure waste and desolate plain, that extends from Lima to Chorrillos.

During the raw, damp, and foggy months of July and August in Lima, Chorrillo enjoys a clear sky and a genial air. The south-westerns, laden with heavy clouds, spend their strength on the *Moro-Solar* (on which burst the only thunder-storm witnessed by the Limeniens in the memory of any one now living), and divide into two currents; the one pursues the direction of the village of Miraflores, and the other, the hacienda of San Juan, leaving Chorrillos clear and serene between. Thus protected, Chorrillos does not experience the chilly mists of winter; and it is the great hospital of convalescence for agueish, asthmatic, dysenteric, rheumatic, and various other sorts of invalids from the capital during the misty season.

The salutary practice of bathing in the sea was in former times confined chiefly to those affected with cutaneous diseases; but within the last fifty or sixty years sea-bathing has been preferred to river-bathing, or to the cold baths by the old Alameda, and fountain of Piedra-lisa. The women are usually cleanly in their persons; but, however, congenial cleanliness may be to their sex, they, like the sick and bearded men, seem to be greatly afraid of ablution in hectic fever, and some other diseases with which they are often visited.

CALLAO AND THE ISLAND OF SAN LORENZO.

Captain Wilkes, who anchored for ten days at San Lorenzo, measured its three highest points with barometers. The result gave 896 feet for the southern, 920 feet for the middle, and 1284 feet for the northern summit.

“Upon the latter,” he says, “the clouds generally rest, and it is the only place on the island where vegetation is enabled to exist. The others are all barren sandy hills. It is said that the only plant which has been cultivated is the potato, and that only on the north peak. This *becomes possible* there from the moisture of the clouds, and their shielding it from the hot sun.

"Quantities of shell-fish are found on the shore, and the waters abound with excellent fish.

"The burying-ground is the only object of interest here. The graves are covered with white shells, and a white board, on which is inscribed the name, &c. They appear to be mostly of Englishmen and Americans, and it would seem that the mortality had been great. But when one comes to consider the large number of men of-war which have been lying in the bay, and the period of time elapsed, the number of interments do not seem large."

The Bay of Callao, with the climate, combined with the prevailing winds, renders it a fine harbour. The island of San Lorenzo protects it on the west from the swell of the ocean, but its northern side is entirely exposed; but there is no danger to be apprehended from that quarter. A few miles to the north the influence of San Lorenzo ceases; the surf there breaks very heavily upon the beach, and prevents any landing.

The plain rises gradually from Callao towards Lima. From the bay it is seen distinctly, about six miles distant, and does not appear to be elevated; yet Captain Wilkes, who measured the height of Mr. Bartlett's house above the level of the sea by sympiesometer, found it 420 feet high. This rise is scarcely perceptible passing over the road, except to one who has a practised eye.

Since 1821, Callao had improved, notwithstanding the vicissitudes it has gone through since that time.

"A fine mole has been erected, surrounded by an iron railing. On it is a guard-house, with soldiers lounging about, and some two or three on guard.

"The mole affords every convenience for landing from small vessels and boats. The streets of Callao have been made much wider, and the town has a more decent appearance. Water is conducted from the canal to the mole, and a railway takes the goods to the fortress, which is now converted into a depôt. This place, the sea-port of Lima, must be one of the great resorts of shipping, not only for its safety, but for the convenience of providing supplies. The best idea of its trade will be formed from the number of vessels that frequent it. I have understood that there is generally about the same number as we found in port, namely, forty-two, nine of which were ships of war; five American, two French, one Chilian, and thirty-five Peruvian merchantmen, large and small."—*Narrative*.

The castle of Callao has long been the key of Peru. Whichever party has had it in possession were considered as the possessors of the country. It is now converted into a custom-house, and is nearly dismantled. Only five of its guns remain out of 145.

The Limenians are said by Dr. Smith to be fond of seasonable bathing, and the pleasures of a watering-place, which they know how to enjoy for three months in the year.

The principal street of Callao runs parallel with the bay. There are a few tolerably well-built two-story houses on the main street, which is paved. These houses are built of adobes, and have flat roofs, which is no inconvenience, in consequence of the absence of heavy rains. The interior of the houses is of the commonest kind of work. The partition-walls are built of cane, closely laced together. The houses of the common people are of one story, and about ten feet high; some of them have a grated window, but most of them only a doorway and one room.

Other dwellings are nothing more than mud walls, with holes covered with a mat, and the same overhead.

The outskirts of Callao deserve mentioning only for their excessive filth.

The donations to the clergy or priests, at two small chapels, are collected on Saturdays from the inhabitants. On the evening of the same day, the devotees of the church, headed by the priest, carry a small portable altar through the street, decorated with much tinsel, and various coloured glass lamps, on which is a rude painting of the Virgin. As they walk, they chant their prayers.

The market is held in a square of about one and a half acres. The stands for selling meat are placed indiscriminately, or without order. Beef is sold for from four to six cents the pound, is cut in the direction of its fibre, and looks filthy. It is killed on the commons, and the hide, head, and horns are left for the buzzards and dogs. The rest is brought to market on the backs of donkeys. Chickens are cut up to suit purchasers. Fish and vegetables are abundant, and of good kinds, and good fruit may be had if ordered from Lima. Everything confirms, on landing, the truth of the geographical adage, "In Peru it never rains. It appears everywhere dusty and parched up."

The situation of old Callao is still visible under the water. The very foundation seems to have been upturned and shaken to pieces, and the whole submerged by a mighty sea. The wonder is that any one escaped to tell the tale.

"Two crosses mark the height to which the sea rose. The upper one, one-third of the way to Lima, indicates the extreme distance to which the water flowed; the lower one marks the place whither the Spanish frigate was carried. I very much doubt the truth of either. I can easily conceive that a great wave would be sufficient to carry a large vessel from her moorings half a mile inland, but I cannot imagine how the water should have reached the height of one hundred and fifty feet at least above the level of the sea, and yet permitted two hundred inhabitants of old Callao to have escaped on the walls of a church that are not half that height.

"Outside the walls of the fortress are several large vaults, filled with the dead, in all stages of decay, and on which the vultures were gorging themselves; this was a revolting spectacle. Many are thrown in naked, and covered only with a few inches of sand. Great numbers of skeletons are still seen with pieces of clothing hanging to them. Dogs and vultures in great numbers were everywhere feeding upon the dead, or standing aloof fairly gorged with their disgusting repast. If any thing is calculated to make a people brutal, and to prevent the inculcation of proper feeling, it is such revolting sights as these."

Callao is said to contain between two and three thousand inhabitants, but this number seems to be overrated. Several new buildings are in course of erection, notwithstanding the times of revolution. The principal street is about a third of a mile in length, and is tolerably well paved, with side-walks.

"Billiard-signs stare you in the face. This may be set down as the great amusement, to which may be added the favourite *monté* at night."

Coaches, or rather omnibuses, run several times a day to Lima. The old accounts of robberies on the road to Lima, are still fresh in the mouths of strangers. In times of revolution it was infested by robbers, but the steps taken by government have effectually put a stop to them.

On the road to Lima is Bella Vista; but it is in ruins, and has been so ever since the revolution. It was generally the outpost or battle-ground of the two parties, and although the soil in the plain which borders the sea is extremely fertile, consisting of decomposed rock, containing the elements of fertility in the greatest abundance, it is now a neglected waste. On approaching Lima, the gardens and fields are cultivated and irrigated. Fields of Indian corn are seen, some fully ripe, some half-grown, and others just shooting up. This bears testimony not only to the fineness of the climate, but to the fertility of the soil. The gardens near the city are filled to profusion with fruits of all descriptions.

The road, on its near approach to the city, forms an avenue of about a mile in length. This, in its prosperous days, was the usual, and most agreeable evening drive. On each side are gardens filled with orange-trees, the fragrance of whose flowers, and the beauty and variety of the fruit, add to its attractions. It is now going to decay from utter neglect. *It is typical of Peru.*

CHAPTER XXIV.

BOLIVIA.

BOLIVIA extends north to south from 10 deg. 30 min., to 25 deg. south latitude; and east to west from about 57 deg. 50 min., to about 71 deg. 30 min. west longitude. It extends nearly three degrees and a half along the Pacific. The greatest length is estimated about 940 miles. The greatest breadth at about 850 miles.

Bolivia is bounded on the north by Peru; on the east by Brazil, and by the republic of Paraguay; south by the Gran Chaco, the republic of Salta, and Chile.

The region between the Pacific and the Andes is appropriately called the Desert of Atacama. Few parts of it are stated to be fit for agriculture. The streams which flow from the mountains, are soon lost in the sands. The country south of the Alturas de Lipez consists chiefly of rocky ridges, with little vegetation, except in the elevated valleys, which are about 5000 feet above the level of the sea. In the latter, the grains of Europe, maize, and the fruits of southern Europe, are cultivated. The valley of Titicaca has a fertile soil, especially in the neighbourhood of the lake, where quinoa, potatoes, and barley are cultivated; but generally no other grains or culinary vegetables succeed, owing to the severity of the climate. The valleys south of the Sierra de la Cruz are the most populous and best-cultivated parts of Bolivia. The valley of Cochabamba, is reputed for the richness of its soil and products. The *Yungas*, or small valleys north of the Sierra de Santa Cruz, are also productive. The rivers that

drain these valleys, generally bring down gold, of which a considerable quantity has been collected. The Plains of Moxos and Chuquitos are covered with forests, with occasional savannahs. But although extremely fertile, they are thinly peopled, and inhabitants and cultivation appears only along some of the river banks.

The River Loa flows, for about 180 miles, to the Pacific, but brings down so little water that in summer it is only about fifteen feet broad at its mouth, and only a few inches in depth. Almost every other stream flowing west from the Andes is lost in the sands, and does not reach the sea. The Rio Desaguadero, which drains the valley of Titicaca, runs about 200 miles, until it disappears among some swamps and lakes. Many rivers descend from the eastern declivity of the Andes; and those which drain the country south of the Alturas de Lipez are also very numerous. They unite either with the rivers which fall into the Rio Madeira, or with those which constitute the most remote branches of the Pilcomayo, a great tributary of the Paraguay. Near 10 deg. 30 min. south latitude, the Madeira is joined by the navigable Beni. The Guapahi and Mamoré, as well as the Beni, are navigable from the places where they leave the mountains. The navigation of the Rio Madeira is, however, interrupted by cataracts, which occur between 9 deg. and 10 deg. south latitude. The cataract of Theotónio is said to be fifty feet high. Farther down the Madeira is free from impediments to navigation, and may be navigated by vessels of any size to the Amazon. But the Beni, Mamoré, Pilcomayo, and Bermego, are navigable either to the Amazon, or Paraguay, for vessels sufficiently large to navigate the Atlantic.—(See account of the Rivers Amazon and Paraguay hereafter).

The natural facilities for inland navigation possessed by Bolivia, east of the Cordilleras, and the fertility and power of production of which the soil is capable, are sufficiently great to render Bolivia a very rich and important nation.

Climate and Agriculture.—The discovered regions of Bolivia vary greatly in climate and productions. The region of Atacama is sterile, as it never rains; fogs are common during a part of the year. A little maize is cultivated in a few spots. The valley of Titicaca and the plains of Moxos and Chuquitos present a great contrast: both regions have a rainy season, which occurs from November to April; but while the rain descends in showers on the valleys, it falls in torrents on the plains. On the plains cacao, coca, indigo, cotton, rice, mandioc, and several tropical fruits are grown, whilst the forests supply copaiva balsam, sarsaparilla, caoutchouc, vanilla, and canella de clavo, and many other valuable plants and fruits, and excellent timber. The valleys between the mountains and plains have a temperate climate, and sufficient rain for the growth of the grains and fruits of Europe in the higher, and those of tropical countries in

the lower regions. The forests of the eastern declivity of the Andes yielded chinchona bark.

The valley of Titicaca as well as the savannahs of the plain, supplies pasture for cattle, horses, mules, and sheep. The mountain precipices, which are almost inaccessible to man, are resorted to by herds of guanacoës, vicunas, and llamas; a great number of llamas are used as beasts of burden in the valley of Titicaca. Fish is very plentiful in the rivers. Vicuna and sheep-wool, together with some hides, are articles exported to foreign countries.

Minerals.—Gold occurs in all the valleys of the Yungas, and is considered abundant in the Tipuani, a tributary of the Beni. Large pieces of native gold are found in rivers. Gold is also found in a mountain near the coast, but it is not worked. The mines of Potosi have, for a long period, supplied more silver than all the other mines of the world, and they are still worked, but it is said with loss. Mines occur in the valley of Titicaca, near Oruro, and west of Potosi, and in some other places. Copper is found in abundance on the surface, near the southern extremity of the valley of Titicaca: the ore is described as very rich, but it is not yet brought to the Pacific, as it will not pay the expense of carriage. Iron and lead occur, but they are not mined.

Population.—The population consists of the Spanish race, Mestizoes, and aboriginals. The latter constitute about three-fourths of the whole, and they are most numerous in the valley of Titicaca, in the Yungas, and on the plains. The native population of the valley of Titicaca consists of Peruvians, who are distinguished by their industry in agriculture, and the rearing of cattle and llamas. They speak the Quichua language. The plains are inhabited by numerous tribes, most of which are comprehended under the names of Moxos and Chiquitos. The Moxos, who are said to have been civilised by the missionaries, who commenced their labours about 200 years ago, have become an agricultural people; they cultivate different kinds of plants and roots, and live in fixed habitations. The Chiquitos appear to have retained their nomade habits. The Chiriguanos and Zamucos are independent natives. Of the Spanish race, and of the Christianised aborigines, most of what is said relative to the inhabitants of Peru, applies to Bolivia.

Nothing can be more vague than the estimates of the population, which range from 500,000 to 1,500,000 inhabitants. The area of the departments into which Bolivia is divided has been computed as follows:—

1. Lamar, 30,000; 2. Cinti, 20,000; 3. Tarija, 12,000; 4. Potosi, 40,000; 5. Oruro, 12,000; 6. Chuquisaca, 24,000; 7. Cochabamba, 18,000; 8. La Paz, 65,000; 9. Santa Cruz de la Sierra, 159,000;—Total area, 380,000 square miles. These computations are mere estimates.

The department of Lamar, which comprises the sea-coast, is remarkable for its sterility. It has some harbours seldom visited by European shipping,

with the exception of Cobija or Lamar. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, but is a miserable place : provisions, and even water, are brought to it from a great distance.

The department of Zinta or Cinti is divided into two provinces, Lipez and Cinti. In the fertile valley of Cinti considerable quantities of wine and brandy are manufactured. *Tupiza*, on the road leading from Buenos Ayres to Potosi, has about 5000 inhabitants, with some silver mines in the neighbourhood. Cinti has about 2000 inhabitants, and traffic in wine and brandy.

The department of Tarija lies to the east of Cinti, and comprehends the country west of that which is inhabited by the Chiriguanos Indies, and is drained by the Rio de Tarija, an affluent of the Vermejo, and its tributaries. It is a country chiefly of high mountains, with some fertile valleys, which produce tropical products. The capital Tarija has about 2000 inhabitants.

The department of Potosi comprehends the mountainous country north of the Alturas de Lipez, of Porco, and the Eastern Bolivian Andes, as far north as the sources of the Cochabamba. It is divided into the provinces of Chichas, Porco, and Cayanta. Nearly the whole area is occupied by mountains rising above the limit of vegetation. It contains the richest silver mines of Bolivia. *Potosi*, the capital, is built on the declivity of the Cerro de Potosi. The town is situated at nearly 13,000 feet above the level of the ocean, and has about 30,000 inhabitants. About 250 years ago, it is said to have contained about 100,000 inhabitants. The streets are narrow and steep, but the houses are substantial. The surrounding country is destitute of vegetation. The mines are above the town, and elevated about 15,000 feet above the sea.

The department of Oruro occupies the valley of Titicaca, the Western Bolivian Andes. It is divided into the provinces of Oruro, Paria, and Carangas. Grain is scarcely cultivated, unless it be *quinoa* ; it has extensive pastures. There are several rich silver mines; and copper, though abundant, cannot be smelted from an utter want of wood, or other fuel than reeds or rushes, and the transport of the ore where it can be smelted is by far too expensive. Oruro, the capital, is situated in the valley of Titicaca, about 12,000 feet above the sea-level, and contains about 6000 inhabitants, engaged chiefly in working the silver mines in the neighbourhood.

The department of Chuquisaca comprehends the southern districts of the valleys south of the Sierra de la Santa Cruz ; the vale of the Rio Pilcomayo, and the eastern portion of the basin of the Rio Guapahi : it is divided into the provinces of Yamparaes and Tomina. The valleys are broad and fertile, and in some districts tolerably cultivated. The mountains contain some silver-mines. The capital, Chuquisaca, is the seat of the general government of Bolivia. It is built in a beautiful valley, 9000 feet above the level of the sea. It has a cathedral and several substantial buildings, about 25,000 inhabitants, several institutions

for education, including a university and mining school. Two roads lead from this town to the valley of Titicaca, that of Levichuco to Oruro, and that of Tolapalca to La Paz; the latter leads over a pass 14,375 feet above the sea.

The department of Cochabamba is divided into the provinces of Sacába Tapacarí, Arque, Palca, Clissa, and Mizque, and contains the most populous and agricultural districts of the republic. All the grains and fruits of Southern Europe succeed in perfection: the products are sent partly to the valley of Titicaca, and partly to other departments. The silver-mines are of little value as far as worked; some gold is collected in the rivers. Cochabamba is situated in a valley on the banks of a small river. Oropesa, the capital of the department, has 16,000 inhabitants, and has manufactures of cotton and glass.

The department of La Paz extends over the central parts of the valley of Titicaca, and it also comprehends the eastern range of the Bolivian Andes with the Yungas, and the plain as far east as the Rio Beni. It is divided into the provinces of Pacajes, Sicasica, Omasuyos, Larecaja, Chulumani, and Apolobamba. Gold and chinchona bark are among its most important products. La Paz, the capital of the department, is situated in a narrow valley, many hundred feet below the level of the valley of Titicaca, on the banks of the Rio Chuqueapo. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and is the most trading town in the republic. A road over the pass of Gualillas (14,200 feet above the sea) leads from La Paz to the coast of Peru, and another over that of Pacuani (15,226 feet high) to Cochabamba and Oropesa. By these roads European commodities are brought to the countries east of the Andes, and gold and bark are exported by those routes.

The department of Santa Cruz de la Sierra includes nearly the whole of the eastern plains; it is divided into the provinces of Valle Grande, Pampas, and Baures, and the regions of Moxos, Chiquitos, and Chiriguano. Near the declivities of the Sierra de la Cruz, and along the banks of the Guapahi, there are settlements of Spanish races: the whole of the other parts are occupied by the native tribes, who are agriculturists, and also manufacturers of rudely-made cotton stuffs. The natural fertility of the department is remarkable, but nothing is, however, produced for exportation. The capital, San Lorenzo de la Frontera, situated on the banks of the Guapahi, is not far from the old town of Santa Cruz de la Sierra: it has about 4000 inhabitants, of whom about 1500 are of European race.

The great difficulty and expense of carrying commodities over the Andes to the populous districts of Bolivia, separated from the Pacific, had compelled the inhabitants to become their own manufacturers. Cottons and woollens are manufactured; tanneries are also numerous. There are also some glass-works, and manufactories of hats, cloth, &c.

We can say little of the government or statistics of this country. The

executive, administrative, and legislative government differs little from that of Peru. Our observations on, and accounts of, the climate of Peru, apply as nearly as possible to Bolivia.—(*See also the most recent maps of both countries.*) Bolivia is a region of great natural advantages, which require only a thrifty, industrious, and skilful population to render its eastern provinces, especially, one of the most productive countries in South America.

CHAPTER XXV.

CHILE.

CHILE extends along the Pacific from about 25 deg. to 41 deg. 50 min. south latitude; the island of Chiloe is separated from the continent by the straits of Chacao, and extends to 43 deg. 30 min. south latitude. Chile lies between 69 deg. and 72 deg. west longitude; from south to north its length is about 1170 miles, its breadth varies from 100 to 200 miles.

On the north Chile is separated from Bolivia by a desert, the boundary-line on the coast of the Pacific is near the village of Paposo.

The Andes, the highest part of which constitutes the eastern boundary-line of Chile, together with the high mountain masses which form the western declivity of the Andes, occupy a great part of the area of Chile; north of the Cuesta de Chacabuco, there are valleys between lofty ridges similar to the valleys of Peru; south of that there are extensive plains, and few ridges of hills except along the coast, where the highlands are almost continuous.

The western declivity of the Andes is abrupt and intersected by ravines, through which the rivers descend with impetuosity. The parts fit for cultivation are limited to where these ravines change into vales or plains. Southward the lower declivities are covered with fruit, northward they are generally bare and rocky.* There are silver mines, but few of them are worked. The hilly country is, in many parts, sandy or rocky, without any vegetation excepting some patches of cactus and coarse grass. The crops of maize in the mountain districts are said not to be sufficient for the inhabitants, who derive their chief means of subsistence from the labour in, and produce of the silver and copper mines, and partly also from the fruits of the upper valleys. The plains, in most parts, afford good

* In the narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition, Captain Wilkes observes—"On approaching the coast of Chile, every one is anxious to get a sight of the Cordilleras. There are only two periods during the day in which they can be seen to advantage, viz., in the morning before sunrise, and in the evening at sunset. The first is the most striking view. The outline is at that time of a golden hue, and may be easily traced, in a long line, running north and south. This gradually brightens, and is lost the moment the sun is seen. The evening view gives rise to disappointment. The mountains are seen at a great distance (eighty miles in a bird's flight), reflecting the setting sun, and, in consequence, appear much lower than is anticipated."

pastures. Some districts are fit for agriculture, and the remaining portions are sandy flats. The arable districts of Chile supply the countries of South America on the Pacific with grain, and the pastures with jerked beef and hides. The undulated country between the plains and the sea is, in many parts, covered with stunted trees; but grapes, and other delicious fruits, are also grown in the hilly countries.

Rivers.—The rivers of Chile, north of the Maypù, bring down little water; none are navigable; they serve, however, the important purpose of irrigating the lands. South of the Maypù, in 34 deg., the rains fall in sufficient quantities, and the rivers, though deeper, are not used for irrigation. The River Maule is navigable for vessels drawing about seven feet of water; it is navigable for river barges for about twenty miles. The Biobio, the largest of the rivers of Chile, flows a course of nearly 200 miles; at its mouth it is two miles wide, but too shallow for large vessels to enter. It is navigable for river craft to Nacimiento, about 100 miles from its mouth. The River Callacalla is deep enough for large vessels to enter its mouth. There are no large lakes of any importance in the valleys and plains. In the Andes there are some lakes, but, as far as known, the largest is not more than fifteen miles in length.

Climate.—Extending from north to south for sixteen degrees, and with a very irregular surface, the temperature of the climate of Chile is consequently variable. In the valleys, especially in that of Copiabo, years pass over without rain falling. Further south showers occur only during three or four years, after which a rainy season drenches these southern valleys. In Aconcagua still further south, the number of rainy days do not generally exceed fourteen to twenty-one. South of the River Maypù rain falls sufficient for the cultivation of grain. At and near the River Biobio, rain falls regularly in winter, otherwise the sky is cloudless during six or seven months of the year; south of that river the rains are irregular, and fall heavily. The regions where rains fall are covered with forests; many of the trees afford excellent timber. In the arid regions, a few shrubs, stunted trees, and cactus, are the chief natural products.

The vegetable productions cultivated are similar to those of southern Europe. Maize is cultivated in the northern parts of Chile; wheat and barley are generally grown in the southern plains; and wheat and flour are exported to Peru and other places. Grapes, fruits, and such vegetables as are common in southern Europe, are produced abundantly in the valleys as far south as the River Biobio. The wines, of tolerable quality, are made for home use. Timber is exported from Chile and other parts.

The pastures of the southern provinces feed large herds of cattle; jerked beef, tallow, hides, and live stock are exported. Guanaco and llamas abound in the northern provinces.

Minerals.—Gold is found in the sands of the rivers. It was formerly, but

not at present, collected. Silver mines exist in the Andes ; south of 33 deg., north of that parallel they are numerous in the ridges between the valleys. In the arid and sterile desert between the valleys of Copiabo and Huasco, they are worked to a considerable extent. Copper ore abounds in the same region, and is imported into England, chiefly into Swansea to be smelted. Lead and iron exist, but they are not worked. In the country on the northern banks of the River Biobio there are extensive coal-fields partially worked. Salt is made from the water of a salt lake ; it is also imported, partly from Peru, by sea, and from the native tribes of Patagonia, who make it from the salt lakes of that country.

Population.—The population of Chile consists of the descendants of the Spaniards, and aboriginal tribes. All the inhabitants, north of the River Biobio, are of European race, with scarcely any mixture of Indian blood. The aboriginals occupy almost exclusively the country south of the River Biobio. South of the Biobio the inhabitants known under the name of Araucanians, have preserved their independence in defiance of the Spaniards. They derive their subsistence chiefly from cultivating maize, potatoes, beans, and vegetables ; and they rear large herds of cattle and horses. During the war of independence they made destructive inroads upon the country north of the Biobio ; a successful war was afterwards carried on against them, which ended in a peaceful agreement.

As no census, that we know of, has been ever taken of the population, we can only state, that by an estimate made some years ago, the population was stated at 1,200,000 souls. The present population is considered to exceed 1,300,000 souls, exclusive of the Araucanians.

CHILE is divided into eight provinces, the area of which is estimated in square miles as follows:—Coquimbo, 48,000 ; Aconcagua, 14,000 ; Santiago, 12,000 ; Colchagua, 15,000 ; Maule, 12,000 ; Concepcion, 18,000 Valdivia, 40,000 ; Chiloe, 11,000 : total area, 170,000 square miles.

Towns.—Copiabo, in the valley of the same name, about forty-five miles from the sea, has nearly 3000 inhabitants. Its port on the coast is bad, as the surf rolls in heavily, and the landing is very difficult ; copper, copper ore, and silver are laden at this port, which has a village with about 1100 inhabitants. Ballenar, in the valley of the River Huasco, about forty-five miles from the sea, owes its rise to some silver mines in the neighbourhood. It contains about 7000 inhabitants, and takes its name from Ballenagh in Ireland, the birth-place of the family of O'Higgins. La Serena, or Coquimbo, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated in the valley of the same name, about seven miles from the sea ; it contains nearly 8000 inhabitants, and exports silver and copper ore ; the harbour which is at the mouth of the river, is one of the best on this coast. Illapel, with about 1500 inhabitants, is situated in the neighbourhood of copper mines.

The province of Aconcagua comprehends the southern portion of the *Valles*, including the Andes to the east of it. The valleys of Chuapa, Quilimari, Ligua, and Aconcagua are wide and fertile, especially the last. This province is com-

posed of the former provinces of Quillota and Aconcagua. Its commercial wealth consists in its agricultural productions, especially wheat and cattle. It has also some mines of silver and copper, but with the exception of those of Petorca, they are not considered rich. A fertile and well-cultivated plain, which is an expansion of the Valley of Aconcagua, has the towns of Felipe and Santa Rosa de Aconcagua: each with from 5000 to 6000 inhabitants. Quillota, about twenty miles from the sea, has 8000 inhabitants, and is surrounded by orchards.

CONCEPCION, about two miles from the bank of the Biobio, and six miles from its mouth, was once the capital of Chile. It has been repeatedly destroyed by earthquakes, and devastated by the invasion of the Araucanians. Since its destruction by the great earthquake of 1835, it is nearly all in ruins. Timber and cattle are exported. Valdivia, the capital of the province of the same name, has an excellent harbour, well fortified, and contains about 2000 inhabitants.

The ISLAND OF CHILOE is about 100 miles long, and, on an average, forty miles wide. The western shores of the island are rocky masses rising abruptly from the ocean to the height of 1500 or 3000 feet. The eastern shores are of moderate elevation, and in their natural state covered with forests among which are magnificent timber-trees. Rocky islands are scattered over the Gulf of Ancud, most of which are inhabited; Quinchao and Lemuy are populous. The inhabitants of the settlements of Calubco and Carelmapú are chiefly Indians, few in number, and occupied chiefly in cultivating timber. The majority of the inhabitants of Chiloe and of the adjacent islands are aborigines. The whole population of the province of Chiloe in 1832, amounted to 43,000. They export timber, wheat, hams, &c. The shores and bays abound in varieties of excellent fish. The shellfish is described as delicious.

SAN CARLOS is the capital of the province of the same name, with a good harbour, and about 4000 inhabitants.

Manufactures.—The facility with which foreign manufactured goods can be imported into Chile has wisely discouraged the establishment of any important manufactures. A large portion of the population, however, wear home-made stuffs, especially woollen; the importation of British manufactures is increasing: steam-boats from England ply along the coast of Chile; but under the Spanish rule the coasting trade was discouraged.—(See Statistics and Trade of Chile hereafter.)

In 1810, the population of Chile rose against Spain, they were defeated in 1814 at Rancagua by General Osorio, and obliged to submit to their former rulers. In 1817 San Martin, with an army from Mendoza, gained the battles of Chacabuco (1817) and Maypú (1818), the result of which was the independence of the country. The constitution then adopted is still considered the fundamental law, and formed on the principle of a centralized government. The executive power is vested in a supreme director. The legislature is composed of a senate and a house of representatives. The senate consists of twenty members at the most, and every 15,000 inhabitants sends a member to the house of representatives.

CHAPTER XXVI.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES OF CHILE AND VALPARAISO: SANTIAGO COPPER MINES.

VALPARAISO has increased in population, extent, and importance within the last twenty years, and has become the great sea-port of Chile and the western coast. Its harbour is inferior to others on the coast, yet it is the nearest and most convenient port to *Santiago*, the capital.*

Captain Wilkes says,

"I have had some opportunity of knowing Valparaiso, and contrasting its present state with that of 1821 and 1822. It was then a mere village, composed, with but few exceptions, of straggling ranchos. It has now the appearance of a thickly settled town, with a population of 30,000, five times the number it had then. It is divided into two parts, one of which is known by the name of the Port, and is the old town; the other by that of the Almendral, occupying a level plain to the east. Its location is by no means such as to show it to advantage. The principal buildings are the custom-house, two churches, and the houses occupying the main street. Most of the buildings are of one story, and are built of adobes or sun-dried brick. The walls of the buildings are from four to six feet thick. The reason for this mode of building is the frequent occurrence of earthquakes. The streets are well paved. The plaza has not much to recommend it. The government-house is an inferior building. Great improvements are now making, and many buildings on the eve of erection.

"They are about bringing water from one of the neighbouring springs on the hill, which, if the supply is sufficient, will give the town many comforts. On the hills are many neat and comfortable dwellings, surrounded by flower-gardens. These are chiefly occupied by the families of American and English merchants. This is the most pleasant part of the town, and enjoys a beautiful view of the harbour. The ascent to it is made quite easy by a well-constructed road through a ravine. The height is 210 feet above the sea. The east end of the Almendral is also occupied by the wealthy citizens. The lower classes live in the ravines. Many of their habitations are scarcely sufficient to keep them dry during the rainy season. They are built of reeds, plastered with mud, and thatched with straw. They seldom contain more than one apartment.

"The well-known hills to the south of the port, called the 'Main and Fore Top,' are the principal localities of the grog-shops and their customers. These two hills, and the gorge (*quebrada*) between them, seem to contain a large proportion of the worthless population of both sexes. The females, remarkable for their black eyes and red 'bayettas,' are an annoyance to the authorities, the trade, and the commanders of vessels,

* Captain Wilkes observes, "The northers are greatly dreaded, although I think without much cause. One of them, and the last of any force, I had myself experienced in June, 1822 (whilst in command of a merchant vessel). In it eighteen sail of vessels were lost. But since that time vessels are much better provided with cables and anchors, and what proved a disastrous storm then would now scarcely be felt. I do not deem the bay so dangerous as it has the name of being. The great difficulty of the port is its confined space, and in the event of a gale, the sea that sets in is so heavy, that vessels are liable to come in contact with each other, and to be more or less injured. The port is too limited in extent to accommodate the trade that is carried on in it. Various schemes and improvements are talked of, but none that are feasible. The depth of water opposes an almost insuperable obstacle to its improvement by piers. The enterprise of the government, and of the inhabitants of Valparaiso, is, I am well satisfied, equal to any undertaking that is practicable.

"From the best accounts, I am satisfied that the harbour is filling up, from the wash of the hills. Although this may seem but a small amount of deposition, yet after a lapse of sixteen years, the change was quite perceptible to me, and the oldest residents confirmed the fact. The anchorage of the vessels has changed, and what before was thought an extremely dangerous situation, is now considered the best in the event of bad weather. The sea is to be feared rather than the wind, for the latter seldom blows home, because the land immediately behind the city rises in abrupt hills, to the height of from 800 to 1500 and 2000 feet."

and equally so to the poor sailors, who seldom leave this port without empty pockets and injured health.

"It was difficult to realise the improvement and change that had taken place in the habits of the people, and the advancement in civil order and civilisation. On my former visit, there was no sort of order, regulation, or good government. Robbery, murder, and vices of all kinds, were openly committed. The exercise of arbitrary military power alone existed. Not only with the natives, but among foreigners, gambling and knavery of the lowest order, and all the demoralising effects that accompany them prevailed.

"I myself saw on my former visit several dead bodies exposed in the public squares, victims of the *cuchillo*. This was the result of a night's debauch, and the fracas attendant upon it. No other punishment awaited the culprits than the remorse of their own conscience.

"Now, Valparaiso, and indeed all Chile, shows a great change for the better; order reigns throughout; crime is rarely heard of, and never goes unpunished; good order and decorum prevail outwardly everywhere: that engine of good government, an active and efficient police, has been established. It is admirably regulated, and brought fully into action, not only for the protection of life and property, but in adding to the comforts of the inhabitants."

The Chilians, when compared with other South Americans, love their country, and are fond of their homes. The people are attached to agriculture, and the lower orders are better disposed towards foreigners than in the other Spanish republics. Schools and colleges have been established, and a desire to extend the benefits of education throughout the population is evinced.

The police consists of two distinct bodies, one mounted, the other on foot.

"The watchmen carry swords only. The former patrol the streets on horseback, while the latter take their particular walk round a square or two, for which they are responsible. A message may be sent through them to the furthest end of the city, and an answer returned, in fifteen minutes. They carry a loud and shrill whistle, the sounds of which are varied as occasion requires, and by it a concentration of force can be effected in a few moments.

"When they cry the hour they all sing the same tune, but the pitch is ranged in accordance with the scope of the voice. The manner of singing the hour, *Viva Chili, Viva Chili, las diez anda y serena*, is pleasing.

"In the morning they add a prayer, as *Ave Maria purissima las cinco y media*.

"This police adds greatly to the comfort as well as to the safety of the inhabitants. To give an instance of its effects, apothecaries are chosen weekly to keep their shops open all night, and in case of sickness or requiring any aid, one has only to call for the *vigilante*, who takes the recipe and passes it to the next, and so on to the shop, where it is obtained, and returned as soon as possible, without any trouble whatever. They have their particular rounds, and each door is obliged to have a padlock. If any door is found without it, they put a lock on, for which the owner has to pay a fine of four dollars to the city to have it removed; half is the reward of the *vigilante*.

"A complaint during our stay was made by one of the officers, of exactions made by a policeman. It was instantly taken notice of, and punished. It is to be regretted that this police should still wear the military uniform, as it seems unbecoming in a republican form of government; at least we thought so."

The shops are well filled with articles of English, American, and French manufacture. The markets are abundantly supplied. There are no market-gardens in the vicinity of Valparaiso, and most of the vegetables are brought from the valley of Quillota, in panniers, on the backs of mules; grass or clover is brought to market on horseback, which almost covers both horse and rider.

Among the few amusements is a small theatre, and an amphitheatre, the *chingano*, both of which are usually open on a Sunday evening. Also the national Chilean dance called the *samacueca*. It is usually performed at the *chingano*, which is surrounded by apartments where refreshments, including liquors and spirits, are sold. It is generally filled by both sexes. The *samacueca* is danced on a kind of stage; the music is performed by females, on an old-fashioned harp, one end of which rests on the lap of the performer, and the other on the stage ten feet off. A girl beats time merrily on the sounding-board of the instrument. On the right is another, strumming the common chords on a wire-string guitar, making a full sweep across the strings; they sing also a national love-song.

The *samacueca* is danced by a young man and woman, the former gaudily decked in a scarlet jacket, embroidered with gold lace, white pantaloons, red sash, and pumps, with a small red cap; the dress of the young woman is a gaudily-painted muslin dress, short, and starched, over which is thrown a rich-coloured shawl; these, with silk stockings and pumps, complete her costume. These last are characteristic of the Chilean women of all classes. Silk stockings are even worn by the washerwomen at their tubs. The head is adorned only by the hair, parted from the forehead back to the neck, and descending in two long plaits on each shoulder to the waist. The dance is a kind of fandango. Captain Wilkes says,

“The higher classes of females have the name of being virtuous and estimable in their domestic circle, but we cannot say that they are beautiful. They dress their hair with great care and taste. Their feet are small, and they have a graceful carriage. The French fashion of dress prevails, and they are just beginning to wear bonnets. The advancement of civilisation is rapid; the imitation of foreign habits and customs will soon predominate over those of Chile; and what is of more consequence, some attention is being paid to their education.”*

Flowers are but little cultivated. Few gardens are yet to be seen of any consequence. They require constant irrigation most part of the year, which may account for this neglect. There are two in the *Almendral*, kept in tolerable order.

When the American exploring squadron was at Valparaiso, the place was honoured by the president's visit, which, connected with the late victory and successes against Peru, caused much rejoicing; every attention was shown to the chief magistrate. He was taken on an aquatic excursion, on board of a small brigantine decked out with the flags of all nations, and was accompanied by the civil authorities of Valparaiso, the English admiral, and others. On passing the men-of-war he received the customary salute.

“Three balls were given during the stay of the squadron here, in consequence of

* A rather singular occurrence took place at a review of the militia on the Plaiancia, one Sunday, by the president, who was attended by his daughter, and a number of the most respectable ladies of the place. They marched down the line, and afterwards danced with the officers on the field, in the presence of the soldiers. All the South Americans are inveterate dancers, the Chileans taking the lead. The taste for music is general, but although they have a number of national airs, few have been printed. All the printed music in common use is foreign, as are the instruments. Pianos are to be seen in almost every house.

the visit of the president (General Prieto); one in honour of the recent victory of Yungai over the Peruvians; the others by the citizens and foreigners to his excellency. As the former was an extraordinary occasion, a description of it will give some insight into the manner in which they conduct these affairs in Chile. All three were managed in a manner that would have been highly creditable in any part of the world.

“The place selected for the great ball was between the walls of two large unfinished storehouses, a space of 150 feet long by ninety wide, over which temporary arches were built, the whole covered with an awning lined with blue, and studded with stars, from which were suspended some twenty very handsome chandeliers. The whole was carpeted, and the various pillars which supported the roof were decorated with emblems of the victory and nation. At the end, opposite to the entrance, was a transparency of *General Bulnes, the hero of Yungai*, surrounded with scrolls of the deeds. Along the corridors which the piazzas formed, ranges of sofas and seats were placed; on the walls were hung rich mirrors and paintings: the former rested on massive pier-tables, in which hundreds of lights were seen reflected, whilst the graceful festoons of the national flags and pennants formed into draperies, intermixed with wreaths of flowers and evergreens in endless variety, encircling emblematic designs of the nation's glory, produced an effect not easily surpassed. The reception-room of the president was hung with scarlet tapestry, decorated with paintings, mirrors, and pier-tables, and brilliantly lighted with chandeliers, &c.”

There were card-rooms, smoking-rooms, supper-rooms, a dressing-room for the ladies, in which were hair-dressers and mantua-makers in attendance. All Valparaiso had sent furniture of every kind, and even the churches had contributed to the great gala fête in commemoration of the national victory.

The company consisted of about 500, one-third of whom were females. Many uniforms added to its brilliancy.

About ten o'clock, the ball was opened by the president, Don Joaquim Prieto, dressed in a richly-embroidered coat, gold epaulettes, and field-marshal's sash. He danced a minuet with a lady of Valparaiso, after which the dancing became general, consisting of quadrilles, country-dances, waltzes, and the samacueca, cachuca, and lordean.

Marches and national airs were played and sung. The ball did not break up until eight o'clock next morning, at which hour the president and his daughter were escorted home by a procession of dancers, with music playing national airs, &c.

On reaching General Prieto's quarters they sang a national hymn, after which they were invited in, where they again continued dancing until noon.

Captain Wilkes observes,—

“The whole equalled, if it did not surpass, any of our own fêtes in the United States; indeed all who attended were much surprised, having little idea that Valparaiso could have made so brilliant and tasteful a display of beauty and magnificence.”

Previous to the arrival of Captain Wilkes at Valparaiso, the naturalists and some officers belonging to the *Peacock* and *Relief* had made excursions into the interior. On his arrival he allowed those who could be spared, and were desirous of visiting Santiago, to set out for that city, and to others with a view of extending their journey to the Cordilleras.

The *biloche*, a vehicle somewhat resembling a double gig, is generally used for travelling in Chile.

"They have a most rickety and worn-out appearance; almost every part appears mended with cords made of hide. They accommodate two passengers; and the time required between Valparaiso and the city (Santiago), is about eighteen or twenty hours. In the shafts a horse is put; a postilion rides one on the left, and sometimes another is placed on the right, both being fastened to the vehicle by lassos of raw-hide proceeding from the saddle. Each vehicle is attended by three bilocheros or drivers, with a drove of twelve or fifteen horses, forming quite a cavalcade."

The bilocheros are expert riders. Their horses are small, but spirited, and bear fatigue well. Their usual speed is about nine or ten miles an hour. Few equipages can compare with their crazy machines, driven up hill and down dale, with all their accompaniments of horses, guachos, &c.; and it affords no small amusement to those on foot, to witness the consternation of the affrighted passengers, in momentary expectation of a break-down.

"Fortunately the road was excellent, though at this season (May) it is divested of much of its beauty from the want of vegetation. The interest is, however, carried forward to the lofty peaks of the Andes, of whose summits occasional glimpses are had; and the eye glances over the surrounding scenery in the immediate neighbourhood, that would elsewhere be deemed grand, to rest on some high and towering peak. Among these the peak of Tupongati is the most noted, ranking, since the measurement of King, as next in height to the Himmaleh mountains."

The first stopping-place on the road to Santiago is Casa Blanca, a pueblo of about 500 inhabitants, where travellers usually sleep. The accommodations were recently much improved. In the neighbourhood is the only wooded tract in this part of the country. Casa Blanca is 598 feet above the level of the sea.

The road thence passes through Curacovi, a small pueblo, where trap-rock first makes its appearance, and then over a high ridge, called the Cuesta des Zapata. The second plain is of similar character, and extends to the Cuesta del Prado. It is passed over by a zigzag road. On reaching the top, 2394 feet high, the view is magnificent.

The peaks of the Andes, covered with eternal snow, some reaching above the clouds, appear but a few miles off, although twenty leagues distant. Beneath are the grazing grounds of the plain, covered with flocks and herds.

"Variety and life are given to the whole by the view of the national road, on which are seen numbers of vehicles, mules, &c., threading their way up and down the mountain-side, laden with foreign and domestic products. This is the only road of any extent for wheel-carriages in the country. It is kept in good repair by convicts, who are seen working in chains. A moveable prison, or lock-up house, somewhat resembling the cages used in caravans of wild beasts, is used for their accommodation and security at night."

Heavy merchandise is transported in huge ox-carts. No iron is used in their structure; wooden pins and raw-hide lashings, are made to answer the purpose. The yoke is set on the heads of the oxen, behind the horns, and fastened to them. The creaking of these carts may be heard for miles, the drivers never greasing the axles. They are generally drawn by from four to eight oxen.

Light goods are drawn by mules, immense numbers of which are seen on the road at all times.

When travelling in biloches, the relays are made as soon as the shaft-horse tires; he is quickly taken out, and one of the drove caught with a lasso, and put in his place. These relays occur every eight or ten miles; the only relief the horses have is a trot out of harness, without a load. The bilocheros seldom dismount; all is done on horseback. On going up hill, a third or even a fourth horse is soon hitched to the vehicle to assist the draught. The horses are all in good condition, and it is not a little remarkable that they should be so, for their only food was chopped straw. The teamsters and guachos are equally abstemious. They live mostly upon bread and their favourite *chica*, made from the grape, and resembles cider; but after it has passed through a fermentation, it is intoxicating. Mud-huts, or ranchos, are seen on the road-side.

Begging is common on this road.

"The beggars let themselves to the highest bidders, and value themselves according to their deformities. At Valparaiso, two days are allowed in each week for begging."

The plain of Maypo, which reaches to the foot of Cuesta del Prado, is extremely level, and nearly thirty miles in width, extending to the foot of the Cordilleras. The road leads nearly in a straight line over it to the city of Santiago on the eastern side of the plain.

SANTIAGO.—The elevation of Santiago above the sea is 1591 feet, and stands on the third step or plain from the coast. Its entrance is through avenues between high adobe walls.

The Cordilleras have at all times an imposing aspect when seen from the neighbourhood of Santiago, and their irregular outline is constantly varying under the effects of light and shade. Santiago is surrounded by orchards, gardens, farms, and grazing-grounds. The city being enclosed by high adobe walls, gives it a gloomy appearance until entered, when the streets have a fresh and clean look—it is laid out in squares. The streets are paved, and have sidewalks. This clean appearance is owing to a law obliging the inhabitants to whitewash their houses and walls once a year, and to the white contrasting with the red-tiled roofs. The houses are mostly one-story high, built round a court or square, from twenty to forty feet wide, round which the rooms are situated. The roof projects to form a kind of piazza or covered way. The gateway is usually large, and the rooms on each side of it are not connected with the rest of the building, but rented as shops. Opposite to the gateway is the centre window, guarded by a light and ornamental iron frame, painted green or richly gilt. The court is usually paved with small pebbles from the bed of the Maypocho, arranged fancifully: in many cases, the courts are laid out in flower-plats, with roses and geraniums.

The River Maypocho runs through one portion of Santiago, and supplies it

with water. In the centre of the city is the great plaza, where the public buildings are situated. These are built of a coarse kind of porphyry from the mountains; the cathedral and palace each occupy one side; in the centre is a fountain, with several small statues of Italian marble. All the public buildings are much out of repair, having been damaged by earthquakes.

The cathedral is a large edifice—its altar is decked with gold and silver. There are within it paintings and hangings, among which is a large number of trophies, taken in the wars. The niches are filled with wax figures of saints, and there are also "*the remains of two martyrs of the church, in a tolerably good state of preservation.*"

The palace, originally built for the viceroy, is now appropriated to the accommodation of the president and the public offices. On the side opposite to the palace is a colonnade, not yet finished, intended to occupy one whole side of the plaza. Under its portico are fancy and dry goods shops, and between the columns various trades, or lace and fringe-makers work. In the evening it is resorted to by females, with large flat baskets, vending shoes, fruit, and fancy articles; others are cooking cakes, and the whole portico is lighted up, and much resorted to.

The mint occupies a square; it has never been completed, and has suffered from earthquakes. The operation of coining is in the rudest form. Both rolling and cutting are done by mule power.

The public library contains several thousand volumes, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits, and many curious manuscripts relating to the Indians.

The amusements are chiefly the theatre and chingano, and it is called a quiet city. The siesta is daily indulged in; even the shops are shut in the afternoon, and the city is as quiet as midnight. Towards the cool of the evening, the aborigines resort to the alameda, a beautiful walk, well shaded, about a mile in extent, along one bank of the river. It is planted with a double row of poplar trees. Streams of water are constantly running on each side of the walk; within a few yards of each stone seats are placed, which are at times filled with a well-dressed population.

The evenings are often passed at *tertulias*, social or quiet family parties, or in shopping in the colonnade. The inhabitants are addicted to gambling. *Monte* is the game with the higher classes, whilst *match-penny* is that of the lower orders. The Chilian women are remarkable for their ease of manner, kindness, and attention to strangers; they are fond of diversions, particularly dancing and music; most of them have good figures, and some would be called pretty, but their teeth are generally defective.

The men of the upper class and the ladies generally adopt the European fashions. The dress of the lower classes is a mixture of Spanish and Indian—they are fond of bright colours; over their shirt and trousers is worn a blue or brown

poncha. A high-crowned and small-rimmed hat, tied on under the chin, over a bright cotton handkerchief on the head, completes their outfit. They are a well-disposed people, and have more the air of contentment than any other nation of South America.

The markets are well supplied; there is one near the banks of the Maypocho which covers an area of four or five acres, and is surrounded by a low building, with a tile-roof, supported by columns, under which meats of all kinds are sold. In the centre are sold vegetables, fruits, flowers, poultry, and small-wares; the market-women are seated under awnings, screens, and large umbrellas, to keep off the sun. The market is clean.

The average price of a horse is twelve dollars, but some that are well broken are valued high.

The climate of Chile is justly celebrated, that of Santiago is delightful; the temperature is usually between 60 deg. and 75 deg. The country round is extremely arid, and were it not for its mountain streams, which afford the means of irrigation, all Chile would be a barren waste for two-thirds of the year. Rains fall only during the winter months (June to September), and after they have occurred the whole country is decked with flowers; the rains often last several days, are excessively heavy, and during their continuance the rivers become impassable torrents. At Santiago the climate is drier and colder, but snow rarely falls; on the ascent of the Cordilleras, the aridity increases with the cold; the snow was found much in the same state as at Terra del Fuego, lying in patches about the summits. Even the high peak of Tupongati was bare in places, and to judge from appearances, it seldom rains in the highest regions of the Cordilleras, to which cause may be imputed the absence of glaciers.

The party which made the excursion to the Cordilleras left Santiago in biloches, and travelled to the eastward five leagues, to the "Snow Bank" from which the city is supplied. The ascent was gradual, and with no intervening ravines. They then took horses, leaving their biloches to return. Their route after this lay up a valley. On the surrounding heights guanacoes were seen in great numbers.

As they proceeded, the middle region was marked by spiny plants, principally burnadesia. The soil was found to be a mixture of loose earth and pieces of rock. On rising higher, the vegetation became almost wholly extinct; places occurred of an eighth of a mile in breadth destitute of verdure of any kind. The party then ascended a ridge belonging to the main body of the Cordilleras, and at an elevation of about 10,000 feet, they reached its summit. Here they had an extensive view of the line of snow peaks. That of Tupongati appeared the most conspicuous, although at a distance of eighty miles. The guide asserted that he could see smoke issuing from its volcano in a faint streak; the peak itself, from this view of it, was sharp-pointed. The scene immediately around them was one of grandeur and desolation; mountain after mountain, separated

by immense chasms, to the depth of thousands of feet, and the sides broken in the most fantastic forms imaginable. In these higher parts of the Cordilleras they found a large admixture of jaspery aluminous rock, which forms the base of the finest porphyries; also chlorite in abundance. The rock likewise contains fine white chalcedony in irregular, straggling masses. Trachytic breccia was observed in various places. The porphyry is of a dull purple colour, rather lighter than the red sandstone of the United States. No traces of cellular lava were observed, nor of other more recent volcanic productions. No limestone was seen in the regions traversed by the party; all the lime used at Santiago is obtained from sea-shells; nor were any proper sedimentary rocks seen. Complete silence reigned everywhere; not a living thing appeared.

After spending some time on the top they began their descent; and after two hours' hard travelling they descended below the snow line, and passed the night very comfortably in the open air, with their blankets and pillions, or saddle-cloths. Fuel for a fire they unexpectedly found in abundance: the *alpinia umbellifera* answering admirably for that purpose, from the quantity of resinous matter it contains. Near their camp was the bank of snow from which the city has been supplied for many years—it covers several acres. The snow line here seemed to have remained unchanged. The height they had ascended was supposed to have been about 11,000 feet, and the Cordilleras opposite them about 4000 feet higher. The view of the mass of the Cordilleras, in its general outline, was not unlike those of Mont Blanc and other mountains in Switzerland.

They succeeded in killing one of the guanacoes nine feet in length and four feet in height. They were found to frequent only the most inaccessible summits, and are said never to leave the vicinity of the snow; they feed upon several small thorny bushes, which impart a flavour to their flesh, and a smell to their excrement that may be distinguished at some distance from their places of resort. Benzoar is often found in its stomach, and is highly prized among the natives and Spaniards as a remedy for various complaints. It is also used as a gum.

All the party suffered greatly from the heat of the sun's rays and the dryness of the atmosphere; their faces and hands were blistered, and the nose and lips made exceedingly sore, while the reflection of the light from the snow caused a painful sensation to the eyes.

The next day they reached Santiago, whence they returned to the *port*, as Valparaiso is usually distinguished in the country.

Over the Maypocho at Santiago there is a stone bridge with five arches. For nine months of almost every year, the bed of the stream is nearly dry, but in winter and spring, during the melting of the snows, it becomes a torrent, and from the damage that has been done in former times, they have taken the precaution to wall it in on the side of the city, towards the Cordilleras, for several

miles, with stone and hard brick. When swollen it is a quarter of a mile wide, rapid and deep, and would cut off the communication with the surrounding country were it not for the stone bridge.

Messrs. Couthouy and Dana made a trip to the copper-mines of San Felipe. They left Valparaiso on the 17th for San Felipe, which is about 100 miles north of Valparaiso. They travelled in a *biloché* as far as Quillota, a distance of forty miles, and proceeded thence to San Felipe on horses. The road to Quillota was found good, although many hills and valleys were passed over.

For the first twenty-five miles the road led along the sea-shore, with no higher elevation than about 200 feet. At six miles from Valparaiso, the road cuts through a bed of sienite, remarkable for the vertical dikes of granite by which it is intersected.

Ten miles before reaching Quillota, the road passes over a level plain, which extends beyond that place. The hills which bound the valley to the south are low, until approaching Quillota, near which, in the south and south-eastern direction, a lofty ridge rises, adjoining the *campagna* of Quillota, one of the high cone sea-marks for the harbour of Valparaiso. The town, or city of Quillota, occupies the centre of the valley, and is twenty miles from the sea.

The town of Quillota (according to a Mr. Blanchard, who keeps an inn for strangers), is three leagues in circumference. It contains several churches. The "*calle largo*," the longest street, is upwards of a league in length. The same authority gives its population at 10,000 inhabitants. The houses are all one story high, built of adobes, with thatched roofs. There is an abundance of fine building-stone, but in a region of earthquakes the lightest materials are used. Almost every house has a vineyard attached to it, the grapes of which were of good quality and abundant. A portion of the grapes rot upon the vines, as the inhabitants have not the industry or the inclination to manufacture them, although by proper attention they would yield good wine; they only manufacture some into a hard and acid wine, called *masta*, or boil the juice down to the favourite drink of the lower classes, called *chicha*, which somewhat resembles perry or cider in flavour. The small quantity that is not consumed is distilled and sold at Valparaiso. Besides grapes, Spanish wheat and Indian corn are cultivated. Apples, pears, and quinces are also raised. The former are inferior, the latter superior in quality and in great plenty.

Oranges are abundant, but of indifferent flavour.

Quillota is supplied with water from the River Concon or Aconcagua, which is led through all the streets and gardens of the place. It is used for all household purposes as taken directly from the gutters, which are the recipients of dirt of every description from the town. For drinking, it is allowed to settle in large jars kept for the purpose.

The intercourse with strangers at Quillota has been much less than at Valparaiso or Santiago, and consequently the people are more bigoted. About four years previous to this visit, they burnt, in the public square, a large number of Bibles in the Spanish language, along with a heap of immoral and indecent pamphlets, in the presence of the civil, military, and ecclesiastical authorities. These Bibles had been distributed by Mr. Wheelwright, who has done so much in introducing the communication by steam along the western coast of South America.

The fruitful plain or vega of Aconcagua, in width from one to six miles, extends, to the west, some twenty miles to the ocean, and is lost in the other direction in the mountains; it is watered by streams, and covered with farm-houses and hamlets, surrounded by trees and vineyards. One feature of this plain is that the mountains seemed to sink into it as if it were into the ocean. In some cases the line was so well defined, that one foot could be placed on the plain and the other on the base of a mountain rising 6000 or 7000 feet high.

Captains King and Fitzroy have calculated the height of the peak Tupongati several hundred feet above Chimborazo. The surrounding mountains, though from 10,000 to 12,000 feet high, and much nearer, sink into insignificance when compared with it.

The ridges on the northern side of the valley are lofty and precipitous, exhibiting the columnar structure more distinctly.

On the second cuesta the party were gratified by witnessing the mode in which the Chilians capture the wild horses. A party of four or five horsemen with about twenty dogs, formed an extended crescent, driving the wild horses towards the river with shouts. All were armed with the lasso, which was swinging over their heads, to be in readiness to entrap the first that attempted to break through: the dogs serving with the riders to head the wild horses in. They continued to advance, when suddenly a horse, at furious speed, broke the line, passing near one of the horsemen, and for a moment it was thought he had escaped; the next he was jerked round with a force that seemed sufficient to have broken his neck, the horseman having the moment the lasso was thrown turned round and braced himself for the shock. The captured horse reared and plunged furiously. After becoming somewhat worn out, he was suffered to run, and again suddenly checked. This was repeated several times, when another plan was adopted. The dogs were set on him, and off he went at full run, in the direction of another horseman, who threw his lasso to entangle his legs and precipitate him to the ground. The dogs then attacked him, he leapt up, started again, and was in like manner brought to a stand; he at length became completely exhausted, and stood still quite tamed. The shouts of the men, the barking of the dogs, and the galloping of the horses, formed an extremely exciting scene.

Crossing the streams on returning was attended with some danger ; for, owing to their rapidity and depth, they were near sweeping the horses off their legs. They supped afterwards on a *casuela*, a sort of Chilian chowder, with a plentiful supply of garlic, onions, Chile pepper, &c. It is one of the favourite dishes of the country. In three days' ride they had passed over about sixty miles ; the highest temperature experienced was 65·5 deg., the lowest 35·7 deg. At the rancho, where they stopped for the night, the temperature fell 20·5 deg. in three hours.

They passed the nights with the usual annoyance in most houses in Chile, for fleas were abundant.

Copper Mines of San Felipe.—San Felipe de Aconcagua stands about fifteen miles from the foot of the Andes, and the mountains are seen from thence in all their grandeur.

On arriving at San Felipe they proceeded to the house of Mr. Henry Newman, an Englishman engaged in mining operations, to whom they had letters. Mr. Newman was not at home, but his lady, a native of Chile, treated them with great kindness and attention. She made them acquainted with an American, a Mr. Chase, who happened to be on a visit there from Santiago. He had been in Chile since the failure of the expedition of Carrera, when he, with several of his companions, settled in Chile, and afterwards engaged in mining operations. He had several times amassed a large property, and as often lost it by the revolutions that had taken place in the country. He is now engaged in working a silver mine in the vicinity of Santiago, and attempting the German process of smelting, as there are vast quantities of ore, containing a large per centage of silver, which have hitherto been neglected, from the impracticability of separating the silver by the usual method. There is now only one survivor from among the thirty persons who settled in Chile with Mr. Chase. From his operations he expects in a few years to realize a large fortune.

The town of San Felipe is laid out in the form of a square, surrounded by extensive *alamedas*, which are planted with Lombardy poplars. Mr. Newman estimated the population at from 12,000 to 13,000. In the centre of the town is a large open square, one side of which is occupied by the town-hall and municipal offices. Opposite are the church and barracks, and the remaining sides are occupied with shops and private dwellings. The houses are all of one story, and well built. The better class of houses stand some distance back from the street, and are decorated with paintings in fresco on the walls. Roses and jessamines are seen in every court-yard, and the gardens are filled with various fruits, apples, peaches, pears, grapes, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, and quinces ; the latter are remarkably fine, and in great plenty. The houses, as in other parts of Chile, have no fire-places, in lieu of which they use *brazeros*, or pans of live coal. Here they manufacture the *acida* and *aguardiente* of the

country. The process is carried on in a large court behind the house. The grapes are brought in large baskets, or hand-barrows, made with poles and raw hide, and are emptied in heaps under an open shed. On several small boards the grapes are strewed, and separated from the stalks by rolling them rapidly in their hands, the grapes falling along the boards, which are inclined into a large vat, where they are trodden out by men. The juice runs off through a rude strainer at one end into large earthen jars; the residuum is from time to time taken out of the vat, and placed on a platform, when more juice is expressed, by laying boards and heavy stones upon it. That part which is intended for wine, the "must," is poured into earthen jars, where it undergoes fermentation, and a small quantity of brandy, or the *aguardiente* of the country, is added to give it body. The *chicha* is made by boiling down the grape-juice, after fermentation, for several hours over a slow fire. After this process it is put in enormous earthen jars, containing sixty to 120 gallons, which are covered over, and tightly closed. The portion not required for consumption is afterwards distilled with the sediment into *aguardiente*. The stills are nothing more than a number of large earthen pots, holding from eighty to 100 gallons, placed in the ground over a long narrow oven, with, in place of a worm, a straight pipe of copper, about twenty feet long, inserted into each pot or jar, and for condensation, a stream of water from the river passes over these pipes. All the agricultural implements are equally primitive. The ploughs are nothing more than a crooked stick, with the share-end pointed, and hardened by charring. They, however, with rude culture, raise large crops.

Mr. Newman having returned home, enabled them to see the mines, and provided them horses and mules, in order that their own might recruit for their return journey. The temperature at San Felipe varied, between noon and 10 P.M., from 63 deg. to 49 deg. The night was remarkably clear and fine.

The next morning they started for the mines, which are near the summit of the first Cordillera, on the Mendoza road, and about 3000 feet above the level of the sea.

In the valley are the ranchos, called La Vega of Jaquel. This is the principal smelting-place, the ore being brought down by mules from the foot of the mountain, down whose sides it is thrown from the mines. The descent is about 2000 feet, and very steep.

It took about thirty seconds for the ore to descend. The face of the mountain is worn quite smooth by the weight and friction of the ore thrown down.

Mr. Newman had some time before experienced great loss by the burning of his whole establishment, excepting two buildings. Besides the loss of buildings, a large quantity of machinery imported from England was destroyed.

On reaching the mines, they changed their boots for raw-hide shoes, such as

are used by the miners, in order to insure a safer footing. They entered the principal gallery, which was about seven feet high and five broad, excavated for about twenty yards horizontally ; it then divided into several branches, and these again into others, from fifteen to twenty yards in length.

The greatest width of any one gallery was about thirty feet. The mountain has been penetrated horizontally, for nearly 400 feet, in the direction of north-east to east-north-east, as the veins run, and vertically to a depth of 150 feet. Each person was provided with a tallow candle stuck in the end of a split stick six feet long, and caution was given not to lose sight of the guide.

They descended by notched posts.

The light of the numerous candles, brought forth on the walls of the galleries all shades of green, blue, yellow, purple, bronze, &c., of a metallic lustre. The heat of so many candles rendered the temperature very oppressive. The course of labour in the mines is rude. A clumsy pick-axe, a short crowbar, a stone-cutter's chisel, and an iron hammer of twenty-five pounds' weight, were the tools. The hammer is only used when the ore is too high to be reached with the pick or crowbar. The miners, from the constant exercise of their arms and chest, have brawny figures. When the ore is too tough to be removed by the ordinary methods, they blast it off in small fragments.

The ore is brought to the mouth of the mine on the backs of men, in raw hide sacks, which contain about one hundred pounds. Whenever a sufficient quantity to load a drove of mules is extracted, it is thrown down the mountain side, and then carried to the furnace at Jaquel. Seventeen miners were employed : previously the number was one hundred. Whenever a richer vein was struck a larger number were employed, who could always be easily obtained by foreigners, the natives preferring to work for them, as, whatever the profits or losses may be, they were sure of being regularly paid. The wages are from three to four dollars per month, with food. They draw a third of their pay on the last Saturday of every month, and full payment is made twice a year. They are supplied in part of wages, with clothing and other necessities, out of which the agent makes a profit.

The Chilian government prohibits spirituous liquors to be brought within a league of any mine, under a severe penalty, which is strictly enforced. The cost of the maintenance of each workman is not great ; they are allowed for breakfast four handfuls of dried figs, and the same of walnuts : value about three cents. For dinner they have bread, and fresh beef or pork. Sugar and tea they find themselves. The supply of water for the miners has to be brought up the mountains at considerable expense.

The miners' huts are the last habitations on the Chilian side of the Andes.

Chile abounds with volcanic mountains, but few of them are in an active state

of eruption, which may account for the frequency of earthquakes. The peak of Tupongati is the only one in activity in this section.

Santiago contains about 60,000 inhabitants, and is one of the few South American capitals, perhaps the only one, that is increasing in wealth and population. It has various private seminaries for both sexes, a national institute or college, on a liberal footing, an extensive hospital, a medical college, and a military academy. The Congress meets on the 1st of June every year, when the president delivers his message.

Valparaiso numbers 30,000 inhabitants, and is the most flourishing sea-ports in South America. Its population has quintupled within the last twenty years, and it is rapidly advancing in every improvement, growing out of an increasing foreign commerce, and the enterprise of its inhabitants, fostered and encouraged as they are by the government.

The mining districts are to the north, and the grain country to the south. Extensive flour-mills are now in work in Conception and its neighbourhood: the machinery is brought from the United States.

There is very little variation in the climate. During what is called the winter the thermometer occasionally falls for a few hours to 52 deg., but the mean of it throughout the year, at mid-day, would be 65 deg. In the evening and morning, it is at 60 deg.

CHAPTER XXVII.

PATAGONIA AND THE SOUTHERN ISLANDS.

PATAGONIA, together with the islands of the straits south to Cape Horn, extends from the mouth of the Cusu Leubu, or Rio Negro, in 39 deg. south latitude to Cape Horn (55 deg. 54 min. south latitude), a distance of about 1180 miles, and between 64 deg. and 76 deg. west longitude; in breadth between 420 and 200 miles. On the north it is separated from the Argentine Republic by the River Negro. On all other sides it is surrounded by the ocean.

Along the Pacific the Patagonian Andes occupy the surface from thirty to forty miles from the sea. The climate of this region is excessively wet, and the rains fall during the greater part of the year. Strong westerly gales occur frequently. The rains prevent both excessive cold or heat. The mountain region is generally covered with forests except along parts of the shores of the Pacific. The vegetation is luxuriant north of 48 deg., and stunted further south. The remainder of Patagonia consists chiefly of plains, which slope gradu-

ally from the Andes towards the Atlantic, and which, owing to the want of rain, are described, but not on what we consider good authority, as little else than a desert. Gales from the west prevail; the winters are severe; shrubs and coarse grass constitute the principal vegetation.

The Patagonians live on their horses and on the wild cattle, which abound in the northern districts, and on the guanaco, caviar, armadillos, and emus, which abound in the more fertile pastures. There are pumas and wolves, and along the coast of the Atlantic seals and sea-lions. Fish is abundant in the inlet of the western coast; salt-lakes, or lagoons, are found along the eastern shores.

The plains on the continent, as well as on King Charles's Southland, are inhabited by the Patagonians, a race of men described as of enormous size, though modern travellers have not found them to be such giants as they were described by some older voyagers; their average height seems to be about six feet or somewhat more. They lead a nomadic life, and travel rapidly from one extremity of the country to the other. They are divided into four tribes: the Chulian, living near the Andes, the Moluche, who occupy the interior, and the Pehuelche, who live along the coast. The Tehuelhet inhabit the plains adjacent to the Straits of Magalhaens.

The south mountain region is inhabited by the Fuegians, a race of a short stature varying in height from four feet ten inches to five feet six inches. They live by fishing in the inlets, and pass most part of their lives in small canoes.

Of the south coasts of Patagonia, and its harbours, we have condensed the following sketches from the narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition.

"The passage through the Straits of Le Maire gives a vessel a much better chance of making the passage round the Cape quickly. No danger exists here that I know of. A vessel with the tide will pass through in a few hours. As for the 'race and dangerous sea,' I have fully experienced it in the *Porpoise* on the side of Staten Land; and am well satisfied that any vessel may pass safely through it, at all times and in all weathers, or if not so disposed, may wait a few hours until the sea subsides and the tide changes. We were only three hours in passing through. We entered the straits with studding sails set, and left them under close-reefed topsails.

"The coast of Terra del Fuego presents the same general character throughout, of high, broken, and rugged land, which appears of a uniform elevation of about 1000 or 1500 feet, with here and there a peak or mountain covered with snow, rising to some 4000 or 5000 feet. The whole wears a sombre and desolate aspect. It may be said to be iron-bound, with many high and isolated rocks, that have become detached from the land apparently by the wear of ages. Numerous unexpected indentations occur all along the coast, many of them forming harbours for small vessels, and some of them very safe ones.

"The channels formed by the islands are deep, with no anchorage except in the coves near the rocks; but a vessel is generally safe in passing through, as there are no dangers but those which show themselves, and wherever rocks are, kelp will be found growing upon them. To pass through the kelp without previous examination is not safe. It borders all the shores of the bays and harbours, and effectually points out the shoal water.

“ Nassau Bay forms a large indenture in the southern coast of Terra del Fuego, a few miles to the northward of Cape Horn ; it is about thirty miles east and west, by eight miles north and south, and is somewhat protected from the heavy seas by the Hermit Islands. Around the bay are found some harbours sheltered by small islands, and surrounded by the precipitous rocky shores, with occasionally a small ravine forming a cove, into which streams of pure water discharge themselves, affording a safe and convenient landing-place for boats.

“ In passing the Cape the weather was delightful. We sailed within two miles of this dreaded promontory, and could not but admire its worn and weatherbeaten sides, which have so long been invested with all the terrors that can beset sailors. Here we first encountered the long swell of the Pacific, but there was scarcely a ripple on its surface. Although the landscape was covered with snow, the lowest temperature we had yet experienced was 40 deg. Fahrenheit.

“ We continued beating into the passage between the Hermit Islands and False Cape Horn, and found great difficulty in passing Point Lort, from the very strong outward set of the tide, which we found to run with a velocity of five miles an hour. We were not able to make way against it, though the log gave that rate of sailing. After beating about in this channel a long and dark night, with all hands up, we made sail at daylight, and on the 17th of February, 1839, at half-past six A.M., anchored in Orange Harbour. Here we found the *Relief* and tenders all well.

“ The *Relief* had an opportunity of proving the positions and sailing directions of Captain King, R.N., and it affords me great pleasure to say that all his observations tend to show the accuracy of the positions, and the care with which that officer has compiled his sailing directions.

“ No navigator frequenting this coast or passing round Cape Horn should be without the sailing directions for East and West Patagonia, and he will prize them as highly valuable after he has once used them. The admirable surveys and exertions of this officer and those under him on this coast entitle him to the rewards of his country, as well as the thanks of the civilised world.

“ On the morning of the 22nd, at daylight, the natives appeared on the beach, shouting to them to land. They were naked, with the exception of a guanaco-skin, which covered them from the shoulders to the knees.

“ The party of natives were seventeen in number, and with a few exceptions they were above the European height. The chief, who was the oldest man among them, was under fifty years of age, and of comparatively low stature ; his son was one of the tallest, and above six feet in height. They had good figures and pleasant-looking countenances, low foreheads, and high cheek-bones, with broad faces, the lower part projecting ; their hair was coarse, and cut short on the crown, leaving a narrow border of hair hanging down ; over this they wore a kind of cap or band of skin or woollen yarn. The front teeth of all of them were very much worn, more apparent, however, in the old than in the young. On one foot they wore a rude skin sandal.

“ Many of them had their faces painted in red and black stripes, with clay, soot, and ashes. Their whole appearance, together with their inflamed and sore eyes, was filthy and disgusting. They were thought by the officers more nearly to approach to the Patagonians than any other natives, and were supposed to be a small tribe who visit this part of Terra del Fuego in the summer months ; they were entirely different from the Petcherais, whom we afterwards saw at Orange Harbour.

“ None of their women or children were seen, but they were thought to be not far distant in the wood, as they objected to any of our people going towards it, and showed much alarm when guns were pointed in that direction. They seemed to have a knowledge of fire-arms, which they called *eu*, or spirit ; and *kai-eu*, which they frequently uttered with gestures, was thought to indicate their Great Spirit, or God.

“ They had little apparent curiosity, and nothing seemed to attract or cause them surprise ; their principal characteristic seemed to be jealousy. Though they are a simple race, they are not wanting in cunning ; and it was with great difficulty that they could be prevailed upon to part with their bows and arrows in trade, which they, however, did, after asking permission from their chief ; this was always necessary for them to obtain

before closing a bargain. They have had communication frequently before with Europeans; pieces of many articles of European manufacture were seen in their possession, such as glass beads, &c. They refused tobacco, whiskey, bread, or meat, and were only desirous of getting old iron, nails, and pieces of hoop-iron.

"Their food consists principally of fish and shell-fish. Their fishing apparatus is made of the dorsal fin of a fish, tied to a thin slip of whalebone, in the form of a barb, this serves as a hook, and with it they obtain a supply of this food. Their arms consisted altogether of bows and arrows. The natives had the common dog, which they seemed to prize much."

ORANGE HARBOUR (after doubling Cape Horn) is on the western side of Nassau Bay, separated and protected from it by Burnt Island. It is nearly land-locked, and is the safest harbour on the coast. The hills on each side, after several undulations, rise into conical peaks, and the naked rock is everywhere broken into a jagged outline, with no plants to soften its harshness. Every thing has a bleak, wintry appearance, and is in excellent keeping with the climate; yet the scenery about it is pleasing to the eye, bounded on all sides by undulating hills which are covered with evergreen foliage. Distant mountains, some of which are capped with snow, shooting up in a variety of forms, seen beyond the extensive bays, form a fine background. From the ships at anchor, the hills look like smooth downs, and if it were not for the inclemency of the weather, the landscape would be divested of its dreariness.

The hills are covered with forests of beech, birch, willow, and winter-bark. Some of the trees are forty or fifty feet high, having their tops bent to the north-east by the prevailing south-west winds. They are remarkably even as to height, having more the look, at a distance, of heath than of forest trees.

The whole coast has the appearance of being of recent volcanic rocks, but investigations prove the contrary. They nowhere found cellular lava, pumice, or obsidian, nor was there any granite or other primitive rock seen. The rock was trachytic, or of trap formation, apparently having undergone more or less action by fire.

The natives were at first very shy, but they became more sociable and confiding.

Before the squadron departed from Orange Harbour, a bark canoe came alongside with an Indian, his squaw, and four children. The tribe to which they belonged is known by the name of the Petcherai Indians. They were entirely naked, with the exception of a small piece of seal-skin, sufficient to cover one shoulder, and generally worn on the side from which the wind blows.

They were not more than five feet high, of a light copper colour, concealed by smut and dirt, particularly on their faces, which they marked vertically with charcoal. They have short faces, narrow foreheads, and high cheek-bones. Their eyes are small, black, the upper eyelids in the inner corner overlapping the under one. Their nose is broad and flat, with wide nostrils, mouth large, teeth white, large, and regular. The hair long, lank, and black, hanging over

the face, and covered with white ashes, which gives them a hideous appearance. The whole face seemed compressed. Their bodies were remarkable from the development of the chest, shoulders, and vertebral column; their arms long, and out of proportion; their legs small, and ill-made, with little difference between the size of the ankle and leg; and, when standing, the skin at the knee hanging in a loose fold. In some, the muscles of the leg appeared almost wanting, with very little strength, owing to their constant sitting posture, both in their huts and canoes. It was impossible to fancy any thing in human shape more filthy, or a more ill-shapen and ugly race. They have little or no idea of the relative value of articles, even of those that one would suppose were of the utmost use to them, such as iron and glass-ware. A glass-bottle broken into pieces, was valued as much as a knife. Red flannel torn into stripes, pleased them more than in the piece; they wound it round their heads, as a kind of turban.

The children were small, and nestled on some dry grass in the bottom of the canoe. The woman and eldest boy paddled the canoe, the man being employed to bale out the water and attend to the fire, which is always carried in the bottom of the canoe on a few stones and ashes, which the water surrounds.

Their canoes were constructed of bark, very frail, and sewed with shreds of whalebone, seal-skin, and twigs. They were sharp at both ends, and kept in shape and strengthened by stretchers lashed to the gunwale.

These Indians seldom venture outside the sea-weed, by the aid of which they pull their canoes along; and their paddles are so small as to be of little use unless it is calm.

Their huts were generally found close to the shore, at the head of some small bay, and sheltered from the prevailing winds. They were built of boughs or small trees, stuck in the earth, and brought together at the top, bound by bark and twigs. Smaller branches were interlaced, forming a wicker-work, and on this grass, turf, and bark were laid, rendering the hut warm, and these sufficed to exclude the wind and snow, though not the rain. The usual dimensions of these huts were seven or eight feet in diameter, and about four or five feet in height, with an oval hole to creep in at. The fire was made in a small excavation in the middle of the hut. The floor was of clay, apparently kneaded. Opposite the door of each hut was a conical pile of mussel and limpet shells, nearly as large as the hut itself.

These natives were never seen but in their huts or canoes. The impediments to communication by land are great, in the mountainous and rocky country, intersected with deep and impassable inlets, in most places bounded by abrupt precipices. On the hills, as well as in the plains and valleys, the soil is nearly a quagmire. The forest is impeded by a dense undergrowth of thorny bushes.

They appeared to live in families, and not in tribes, and do not seem to acknowledge any chief.

"On the 11th of March three bark canoes arrived, containing four men, four women, and a girl about sixteen years old, four little boys and four infants, one of the latter about a week old, and quite naked. The thermometer was at 46 deg. Fahrenheit. They had rude weapons, viz. slings to throw stones, three rude spears, pointed at the end with bone, and notched on one side with barbed teeth. With this they catch their fish, which are found in great quantities among the kelp. Two of the natives were induced to come on board, after they had been alongside for upwards of an hour, and received many presents, for which they gave their spears, a dog, and some of their rude native trinkets. They did not show or express surprise at any thing on board, except when seeing one of the carpenters engaged in boring a hole with a screw-auger through a plank, which would have been a long task for them. They were very talkative, smiling when spoken to, and often bursting into loud laughter, but instantly settling into their natural serious and sober cast.

"They were found to be great mimics, both in gesture and sound, and would repeat any word of our language, with great correctness of pronunciation. Their imitations of sounds were truly astonishing. One of them ascended and descended the octave perfectly, following the sounds of the violin correctly. It was then found he could sound the common chords, and follow through the semitone scale, with scarcely an error. They have all musical voices, speak in the note G sharp, ending with the semitone A, when asking for presents, and were continually singing.

"Their mimicry became at length annoying, and precluded our getting at any of their words or ideas. It not only extended to words or sounds, but actions also, and was at times truly ridiculous. The usual manner of interrogating for names was quite unsuccessful. On pointing to the nose, for instance, they did the same. Any thing they saw done they would mimic, and with an extraordinary degree of accuracy. On these canoes approaching the ship, the principal one of the family, or chief, standing up in his canoe, made a harangue. Although they have been heard to shout quite loud, yet they cannot endure a noise, and when the drum beat, or a gun was fired, they invariably stopped their ears. They always speak to each other in a whisper. The men are exceedingly jealous of their women, and will not allow any one, if they can help it, to enter their huts, particularly boys.

"The women were never suffered to come on board. They appeared modest in the presence of strangers. They never move from a sitting posture, or rather a squat, with their knees close together, reaching to their chin, their feet in contact, and touching the lower part of the body. They are extremely ugly. Their hands and feet were small and well-shaped, and from appearance they are not accustomed to do any hard work. They appear very fond, and seem careful of their young children, though on several occasions they offered them for sale for a trifle. They have their faces smutted all over, and it was thought, from the hideous appearance of the females, produced in part by their being painted and smutted, that they had been disfigured by the men previous to coming alongside. It was remarked, that when one of them saw herself in a looking-glass, she burst into tears, as Jack thought, from pure mortification.

"The men are employed in building the huts, obtaining food, and providing for their other wants. The women were generally seen paddling their canoes.

"When this party of natives left the ship and reached the shore, the women remained in their canoes, and the men began building their temporary huts; the little children were seen capering quite naked on the beach, although the thermometer was at 40 deg. On the hut being finished, which occupied about an hour, the women went on shore to take possession of it. They all seemed quite happy and contented.

"Before they left the ship, the greater part of them were dressed in old clothes, that had been given to them by the officers and men, who all showed themselves extremely anxious 'to make them comfortable.' This gave rise to much merriment, as Jack was

not disposed to allow any difficulties to interfere in the fitting. If the jackets proved too tight across the shoulders, which they invariably were, a slit down the back effectually remedied the defect. If a pair of trousers was found too small around the waist, the knife was again resorted to, and in some cases a fit was made by severing the legs. The most difficult fit, and the one which produced the most merriment, was that of a woman to whom an old coat was given. This she concluded belonged to her nether limbs, and no signs, hints, or shouts, could correct her mistake. Her feet were thrust through the sleeves, and after hard squeezing she succeeded in drawing them on. With the skirts brought up in front, she took her seat in the canoe with great satisfaction, amid a roar of laughter from all who saw her.

"Towards evening, Messrs. Waldron and Drayton visited their huts. Before they reached the shore, the natives were seen making a fire on the beach, for their reception, evidently to avoid their entering their huts.

"On landing, one of the men seemed anxious to talk with them. He pointed to the ship, and tried to express many things by gestures; then pointed to the south-east, and then again to the ship, after which clasping his hands, as in our mode of prayer, he said, 'Eloah, Eloah,' as though he thought we had come from God.

"After a little time they gained admittance to the hut. The men creeping in first, squatted themselves directly in front of the women, all holding out the small piece of seals-kin to allow the heat to reach their bodies. The women were squatted three deep behind the men, the oldest in front, nestling the infants.

"After being in the hut, Mr. Drayton endeavoured to call the attention of the man who had made signs to him before entering, to know whether they had any idea of a Supreme Being. The same man then put his hands together repeating as before, 'Eloah, Eloah.' From his manner it was inferred that he had some idea of God or a Supreme Being.

"Their mode of expressing friendship is by jumping up and down. They made Messrs. Waldron and Drayton jump with them on the beach, before entering the hut, took hold of their arms, facing them, and jumping two or three inches high from the ground, making them keep time to a wild music of their own.

"All our endeavours to find out how they ignited their fire proved unavailing. It must be exceedingly difficult for them to accomplish, judging from the care they take of it, always carrying it with them in their canoes, and the danger they thus run of injuring themselves by it.

"Their food consists of limpets, mussels, and other shell-fish. Quantities of fish, and some seals, are now and then taken among the kelp, and with berries of various kinds, and wild celery, they do not want. They seldom cook their food much. The shell-fish are detached from the shell by heat, and the fish are partly roasted in their skins, without being cleaned.

"When on board, one of them was induced to sit at the dinner-table; after a few lessons, he handled his knife and fork with much dexterity. He refused both spirits and wine, but was very fond of sweetened water. Salt provisions were not at all to his liking, but rice and plum-pudding were agreeable to his taste, and he literally crammed them into his mouth. After his appetite had been satisfied, he was in great good humour, singing his 'Hey meh leh,' dancing, and laughing. His mimicry prevented any satisfactory inquiries being made of him relative to a vocabulary.

"Some of the officers painted the faces of these natives, black, white, and red: this delighted them very much, and it was quite amusing to see the grimaces made by them before a looking-glass.

"One of these natives remained on board for upwards of a week, and being washed and combed, he became two or three shades lighter in colour. Clothes were put on him. He was about twenty-three years of age; and was unwell the whole time he was on board, from eating such quantities of rice, &c. His astonishment was very great on attending divine service. The moment the chaplain began to read from the book, his eyes were riveted upon him, where they remained as long as he continued to read. At the end of

the week he became dissatisfied, and was set on shore, and soon appeared naked again. It was observed, on presents being made, that those who did not receive any began a sort of whining cry, putting on the most doleful-looking countenances imaginable.

"They are much addicted to theft, if any opportunity offers. The night before they left the bay, they stole and cut up one of the wind-sails, which had been scrubbed and hung up on shore to dry.

"Although we had no absolute proof of it, we are inclined to the belief that they bury their dead in caves.

"There is a black-coloured moss that covers the ground in places, giving it the appearance of having been burnt. Many small ponds are met with, as though the peat had been dug from the place, and the holes filled with water. There is great plenty of scurvy-grass and wild celery close to the beach.

"At Orange Harbour the tide was found to have four feet rise and fall. High water, full and change, at 4 P.M. Among the Hermit Islands it seems to be affected by the winds in the offing. The flood sets to the east."

Passing Cape Horn.—Captain Wilkes says,

"I am inclined to believe that as much depends upon the vessel and the manner in which she is navigated as the route pursued when the Cape is passed close to, or given a good berth; the object of all is to pass it as quickly as possible, and taking into consideration the difficulties to be incurred from boisterous weather, heavy seas, and ice, it is impossible to lay down any precise rule; that course which appears most feasible at the time ought to be adopted; keeping, however, in view, that there is no danger to be apprehended in navigating on the western coast of Terra del Fuego, as the current sets along its coast, and it is perfectly safe and practicable to navigate it as far as Cape Pillar. The great difficulty exists in passing the pitch of the Cape; there is none afterwards, in getting to the westward. On the coast the wind seldom blows long from the same quarter, but veers from south-west to north-west; the gales generally begin at the former quarter and end at the latter. Previous to the south-west gales, it would, therefore, in all cases, be advisable, when indications of their occurrence are visible (which are known by the banks of cumuli in that quarter, some twenty-four hours previously), to stand to the southward and westward in preference, with as much sail as can well be carried, that when the change occurs, you may be ready to stand on the other tack to the northward. One thing every navigator ought to bear in mind, that it requires all the activity and perseverance he may be possessed of to accomplish it quickly.

"On the 20th we took our final leave of these waters, and on the 21st lost sight of land, passing to the northward of the island of Diego Ramieres.

"Immediately after leaving Orange Harbour, dysentery made its appearance on board the *Vincennes*, and ran through the whole ship's company. Some of the officers were also affected. It proved of a very mild type, and readily yielded to medical treatment. Upon our arrival at Valparaiso, it had entirely disappeared. The medical officers were unable to account for it, the health of the ship's company having been very good during our stay at Orange Harbour. It was not thought to be owing to the water, as they had been using it for two months without any bad effect, but I think it must be imputed to the cold and wet we experienced in the first part of the passage.

"On the 15th we made the land off Valparaiso, and before noon anchored in the bay."

CHAPTER XXVIII.

BUENOS AYRES, OR ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

THE federal republic, called on its formation the *Argentine Republic*, including Monte Video and Paraguay, named also the provinces of La Plata, from the wide estuary of that name, lies between 21 deg. and 41 deg. south latitude, and 53 deg. 30 min. and 72 deg. west longitude. Along the meridian of 66 deg. west longitude they extend from south to north about 1120 miles, and in the parallel of 34 deg. south latitude, about 880 miles from east to west. On the south, the River Cusu Leubu, or Rio Negro, forms the boundary line between these provinces and Patagonia. On the east they are bounded by the Atlantic Ocean from the mouth of the Rio Negro north to Brazil, which extends along the northern line as far west as the River Paraguay (58 deg. west longitude), and west of that river by the republic of Bolivia. The principal range of the Andes extends along the western frontier separating the Argentine Republic from Bolivia and Chile.

When these countries became independent of Spain, they formed a federal union. Since that time they have broken up into separate republics.

THE REPUBLIC of BUENOS AYRES extends, it may be said, along the Atlantic Ocean from Rio Negro on the south, to the mouth of the Rio de la Plata; and along the whole southern shores of its estuary, and also along the southern banks of the Paraná as far as the Arróyo del Medio, a river which separates it from Santa Fé. The western boundary runs from the mouth of the River Neposta, in a north-eastern direction to the western extremity of the Sierra del Vulcan, and thence it continues north to about 61 deg. longitude to the fortress of Cruz de Guerra (35 deg. 30 min. south latitude), and thence to the fortress of Melinqué (33 deg. 42 min. south latitude). This boundary separates Buenos Ayres from the territories of the Southern Indians. A line from Melinqué to the Arróyo del Medio, forms the boundary-line between the republics of Buenos Ayres and Santa Fé. The area within these boundaries is estimated at about 75,000 square miles. But this estimate is a vague calculation, and the limits of Buenos Ayres, from the disturbed state of the country, are not settled.

The northern part includes a portion of the Eastern Pampas; the surface of the whole country is nearly flat, diversified by slight undulations. A very large portion of this state has a fertile soil for arable culture or pasturage; a tract south of the Rio Salado is low and covered with swamps, or lakes. The most southern portion comprehends the Sierra del Vulcan, and the south-eastern extremity that of Ventana. The plain between these ranges is said to be fit

for arable culture. No part of it is cultivated. The climate of the northern portion is mild; ice is seldom formed. In summer the thermometer rises to about 90 deg. The north winds which prevail are as disagreeable as the sirocco of Italy. The south-western winds, or pamperos, blow furiously, sometimes accompanied by thunder and lightning. In the southern districts the climate is nearly as severe as in above 50 deg. north latitude in Europe, but it is healthy. Both regions have sufficient rain for vegetation: the rains fall most abundantly before the setting in of the cold weather in April and May.

Cattle and agricultural products form the chief sources of wealth. The number of black cattle that pasture on the pampas is stated to exceed one million. Hides, hair, and horns are exported, and also tallow, and jerked beef. The hides weigh from fifty to sixty pounds on an average. Horses are numerous, and, as well as mules and asses, are exported. Of late the breed of sheep has been improved, and wool constitutes an article of export. The cultivation of the ground was formerly so much neglected, that corn and flour were imported, but some wheat has been exported to some amount.

The following sketch of the Rio Negro, and the southern region of Buenos Ayres is new, and condensed from the narrative of the United States Expedition:

The *Guachos* are generally well made, tall, muscular, black eyes, have large mustaches, and small feet; dress, red striped shirt, white fringed sleeves, and large trousers of scarlet cloth. On the head was worn a red conical cap, surmounted by a tassel.

Their riding boots or leggings are made of the hide from the leg of a horse. This is stripped off and put on the leg while yet green, where it is suffered to dry, and remain until worn out. They fit very closely to the foot, like a stocking. The two largest toes of each foot were uncovered, for the convenience of putting them into the stirrup, which is only large enough to admit them. A long knife in the girdle completes the dress.

The Rio Negro is navigable for boats to the village of Chicula, 200 miles from its mouth.

The distance across the country to Buenos Ayres is but 500 miles, yet it requires fifteen days to communicate with it; the governor had received no advices or information for the last two months from that place. The route is very uncertain, owing to the hordes of hostile Indians.

Grain, fruit, and vegetables thrive well, and with proper industry might be produced in abundance.

The climate is delightful, and cold weather is seldom felt, although ice has occasionally been seen a quarter of an inch in thickness.

Bullocks and horses are the principal articles of trade; indeed, they constitute the legal tender of the country. The former are worth from five to ten dollars, according to age; wild horses, two or three dollars, and if broken to the saddle, ten or fifteen dollars.

The tariff of duties is the same as at Buenos Ayres, but the late reduction of thirty-three per cent during the blockade did not extend to this place.

The Indians that are accustomed to visit this place (Carmen) for the purpose of war or trade, are of four different tribes, viz.: Pampas, Ancases, Tehuiliches or Teheulehes, and Chilenos. The two former occupy the territory to the north of the Rio Negro as far as the Rio Colorado. The Tehuiliches are from the mountains to the south, and the Chilenos from the south-west.

During the infancy of the settlement, and until of late years, these Indians were extremely troublesome, making descents upon the place, and ravaging the outposts, waylaying all who were not on their guard, killing them, and retreating rapidly on their wild steeds, with their booty, to the pampas and mountains. The Spaniards frequently retaliated, and by the superiority of their arms and discipline, inflicted summary punishment on them. The last attack of the Indians was made in 1832, when they met with such an overwhelming defeat, that they have not ventured to make another; yet the garrison is always kept in anxiety for fear of attacks.

The weapons usual in their warfare are a long lance and the *ballos*, such as is used in taking the ostrich and throwing cattle, which they use with great dexterity. This consists of a thong of hide, four feet in length, with a leaden ball at each end, which the horseman grasps in the middle, and gives the balls a rotary motion by whirling them above his head, then dashing on to the attack, he throws it when within range with unerring aim, and seldom fails to disable his enemy. The Indians who are most feared are the *Chilenos*. The *Tehuiliches*, notwithstanding their immense size, are considered little better than cowards.

All the information gained here tended to confirm the general impression that the *Tehuiliches* or *Patagonians* are above the ordinary height of men, generally above six feet; and the minister asserted that he had often seen them above seven English feet. We had not any personal opportunity to verify this statement, the Indians being only in the habit of visiting this post once a year, to obtain supplies, viz., in the month of March, at which time a vessel usually visits the place.

The few Indians who inhabit the huts or *toldos* on the opposite side of the river, are converted, and are termed *Indios Mansos*; they are a mixture of all the tribes, and so much changed in habits and dress from their former condition and mode of life, that an accurate idea could not be formed of their natural character. They were none of them above the middle height; their limbs were usually full and well formed; their complexion a brownish copper, with coarse straight black hair, growing very low on the forehead; this is suffered to grow long, and hangs down on both sides of the face, adding much to the wildness of their appearance. Their foreheads are low and narrow towards the top, their eyes small, black, and deep set. Some were observed with their eyes set Chinese-like. The resemblance was somewhat increased by the width of the face, which was a particular characteristic. The nose is usually a little flattened at the root, and wide at the nostrils, the lips full, and the chin not prominent. The expressions of their countenance betoken neither intellect nor vivacity. The men were generally decked out in tawdy finery, partly after the Spanish fashion; the women had only the *chilipa* to cover their nakedness.

The *Chilenos*, from the western side of the continent, are predatory bands of the *Araucanian* nation.

The *Peulches*, including the *Pampas* and *Tehuiliches*, Falkner, in his account of this country, describes as inhabiting the portion south of the *Rio de la Plata*, and to the east of the *Cordilleras*; they are scattered over the vast plains of the interior. Those to the north of the *Rio Colorado* are generally known under the name of the *Pampas Indians*; they call themselves *Chechehets*. Those to the south of that river are termed *Tehuiliches*; they inhabit the table-land between the *Cordilleras* and the desert plains of the coast.

The *Guachos* and Indians are good horsemen, being trained to ride from their infancy. Indeed, they may be said to live on horseback, and it is very seldom that they are seen to walk any distance, however short.

The ease and *nonchalance* with which a *Guacho* mounts his steed, arranges himself in the saddle, quietly trotting off, lasso in hand, to select his victim, and detach it from the herd; then the eager chase, the furious speed of the horse, the flying dress of the *Guacho*, with upraised arm whirling his lasso, the terror of the animal, the throw of the lasso, and instantaneous overthrow of the bullock, all the work of an instant, excited both admiration and astonishment.

The coast and the banks of the *Rio Negro* are composed of sand-hills, of from thirty to fifty feet in height, covered with a scattered growth of grass, which prevents the sand from blowing away. These gradually rise to the height of 100 feet, except to the

southward of the river, where the bank is perpendicular; at this height the ground stretches away in a level prairie, without a single tree to break the monotony of the scene, and affords a view as uninterrupted as the ocean.

The only verdure on the prairie is a small shrub, which, when the lower branches are trimmed off, serves a useful purpose. From an optical illusion (the effect of refraction) they appear, when thus trimmed, as large as an ordinary-sized apple-tree; and one is not a little surprised to find them, on a near approach, no higher than the surrounding shrubs, four or five feet. Shrubs are trimmed in this manner at distances of about half a mile from each other, and are used as guide-posts on the prairie.

Game is plentiful, consisting of deer, guanacoes, and caviars, cassowaries, partridges, bustards, ducks, &c. Armadillos are common, and the ostrich was frequently seen; porcupines are said also to be found. The caviars were seen running about in single file, with a sort of halting gait.

The width of the Rio Negro is less than a third of a mile; it has a rapid current, and a large body of water is carried by it to the ocean. The ordinary tide is about eight feet rise, and the spring tides fourteen feet. The current is mostly downward, although the tide is felt about ten miles above its mouth. The ebb sets off shore some three or four miles, and may be known by the discolouration of the water, which, just without the bar, is comparatively fresh. The depth at high water on the bar is two and a half fathoms, and the bar is a changing one.

No springs were observed in the vicinity, or any trace of running water, except in the river. The water from the rains collects in the depressions, and forms large ponds, covering acres of grounds, but only a few inches in depth.

The time of this visit corresponded in season to the midsummer months of the northern hemisphere, and the mean temperature was found to be 73 deg. The winters are represented as very mild; snow does fall, but it disappears in a few hours. Ice is seldom seen, though frosts appear to be frequent in the winter. January, February, March, and April, are the least tempestuous months.

The vegetation of the uplands bears the marks of long-continued droughts, in an absence of trees, and the roots of plants penetrating vertically. The stunted appearance of the shrubs, spreading from their base, their branches dense, rigid, and impenetrable, usually growing into spines; the smallness of the leaves and their texture, which is dry, coriaceous, and hardly deciduous; together with the general brown aspect of the landscape, all denote a vegetation adapted to endure or escape drought.

There was formerly some trade carried on in the Rio Negro with Boston and New York, in hides, horns, bones, and tallow, in exchange for cotton and woollen goods, hardware, crockery, boots and shoes, a few articles of furniture, spirits, and tobacco, all of which are bartered at an enormous profit. Considerable quantities of salt are shipped to Buenos Ayres. Vessels discharging or taking in a cargo, pay twelve and a half cents per ton. Vessels stopping without discharging, pay half duty; vessels for refreshments are permitted to remain twenty-five days free of duty, after that time they pay half duty. This duty includes pilotage and all other charges; but the governor seems to have the power to exact the full duty whenever he thinks proper.

El Carmen may be termed a convict settlement; for culprits and exiles are sent here from Buenos Ayres. The garrison is composed of about two hundred soldiers, principally African and Brazilian slaves brought here during the Banda Oriental war."

Industry and trade, have, during the domination of Rosas, greatly diminished.

BUENOS AYRES, the capital, is situated on the south shores of the La Plata, nearly opposite the mouth of the River Uruguay, on level ground, and several feet above the water. Vessels of moderate size may sail up the river as far as the town, but they cannot approach it on account of shoals which intervene between the shores and the deep water. The city is regularly laid out: the

streets intersect each other at right angles. Nearly all the streets are now paved with granite. The houses are low, few of them having more than one story, and the town covers at least twice the area of an European city with the same population. The public buildings which have any architectural pretensions are the churches; but most of them are unfinished. The town is badly provided with water; that which is in the wells is brackish, and those inhabitants who can afford the expense have tanks, in which the rain-water is collected from the roofs of the houses. Many of the houses have small gardens attached, and have European or United States articles of furniture. The water of the river is good, but there are no means of bringing it to the town. Water-carriers retail it to the lower classes. The population, about 80,000 souls, is composed almost entirely of the Spanish race; the number of mulattoes is small, that of the negroes still less. No manufactures are carried on. Buenos Ayres is the seat of government, has a university, an observatory, a public library, and some scientific institutions. The English and Scotch have places of worship, and a burial-place. The trade of Buenos Ayres is considerable, as it is the principal place whence the productions of the provinces of La Plata are exported to foreign markets, and through which they are provided with foreign merchandise.—(See Statistics of Buenos Ayres hereafter.)

The population of the whole province probably does not much exceed 200,000. The great disproportion between the population of the capital would be remarkable, were it not that there is not probably one acre in one thousand under arable culture: all the remainder fit for agriculture being used as pasture. The executive power is vested in the governor, or captain-general, as he is styled, who is elected for five years. He is aided by a council of ministers, appointed by himself, but responsible to the Junta, or Legislative Assembly, of the republic by whom he is elected. The junta itself consists of forty-four deputies, one-half of whom are annually renewed by popular election. But under Rosas all constitutional government has been reversed; the public press, except two vile journals under his direction, has been suppressed.

A chain of forts has been established along the western boundary-line of the province of Buenos Ayres from the Bahia Blanca to Fort Melinqué, to check the inroads of the Indians who inhabit the country west of the republic to the foot of the Andes, and frequently extend their predatory incursions to the settlements of the whites north of 35 deg. south latitude. The south-western Indian country is very little known, but it is said to be more undulated than the *pampas*. Between the Andes and the plains, there extends a hilly country from 100 to 110 miles in breadth; and an undulated country with woods, and stretches thence to the centre of the plains to the purely pasturage or pampas region, which extends to the country of clover, weeds, and thistles. West of Buenos Ayres, the

Guacho and his herds of wild cattle, inhabit these rich pastures. Sulphur is abundant there, and coal is said to exist ; rock salt is found.

The REPUBLIC of ENTRE RIOS, is situated between the rivers Uruguay and Paraná, west of Uruguay. On the north it is divided from the republic of Corrientes by the Mocoreta and by the Sarandi. Estimated area 32,000 square miles. The southern portion is an alluvial plain, annually inundated. To the north, the country is undulated and swampy. A considerable part is prairies, which affords good pasturage on which herds of cattle and horses abound ; hides, horns, tallow, and jerked beef, are exported. Cultivation is limited to a few places. The climate is temperate and salubrious. This republic only requires to be relieved from anarchy to become a most productive region.

BAJADA DE SANTA FÉ, the capital, on the banks of the Paraná, contains about 6000 inhabitants. Concepcion de la China, on the Uruguay, has 2000 inhabitants.

The REPUBLIC of CORRIENTES extends from the boundary-line of Entre Rios to the Rio Paraná, which separates Corrientes from the republic of Paraguay. Estimated area about 20,000 square miles. The southern portion is undulated, partly wooded, and fertile. The northern parts are swampy, and comprise the Lake Ybera. The climate is warm. Cotton, sugar, and indigo are grown. Maize is the common grain. *Seta silvestre*, a kind of silk made by a species of caterpillar, is used for making coarse stuffs. Agriculture is little attended to ; some cotton and tobacco are exported.

CORRIENTES, the capital, near the confluence of the rivers Paraná and Paraguay, it has 4500 inhabitants, and some trade.

The REPUBLIC of MISSIONES, situated between the rivers Paraná and Uruguay extends to the boundary of Brazil. Surface is undulated ; the soil is fertile. It was the principal seat of the *Misiones*, established by the Jesuits among the Guarani Indians formerly. The population once estimated at near 100,000 inhabitants, is at present about 10,000. The climate is warm ; the country produces rice, maize, tobacco, sugar, and cotton, but it is now nearly a wilderness. Estimated area about 7500 square miles. Entre Rios, Corrientes, and the Misiones constitute, geographically, one country ; and it was a descent to the ridiculous to have formed these into separate governments.

The REPUBLIC of SANTA FÉ lies on the western banks of the Paraná, and comprehends the region between that river and the Rio Salado. On the south it is bounded by the Arroyo del Medio. On the west, a desert separates it from Cordova ; and on the north it extends towards the Laguna Salados de los Porongos, and the deserts of the Gran Chaco. The surface of the country is a plateau, from forty to sixty feet above the level of the Paraná, partly covered with the coarse grass and thistles of the pampas, and partly with low mimosa trees. It is said scarcely ever to rain in this country. Cattle and horses consti-

tute the wealth of the people. The River Tercero, or Carcaranal, which joins the Paraná at Fort St. Espiritu, is navigable. In the northern districts there is a small tribe of Guaycurus, in a state of independence.

SANTA FÉ, the capital, has about 4000 inhabitants. Rosario is a considerable place, built on the high banks of the River Paraná.

The REPUBLIC of CORDOVA lies west of Santa Fé. An uninhabited country separates it on the east from Santa Fé. On the north it is separated from the republics of Santiago del Estero and Catamarca by the Travesia de Ambargasta and the Great Salinas; on the west by the republic of St. Luis de la Punta. The soil is generally a sandy loam, and not fit for cultivation without irrigation; the rains and the streams supply water for the pastures. Herds of cattle, sheep, and goats, are reared in abundance. Maize is cultivated in the valleys, and a little wheat in several places. The fruit-trees of southern Europe succeed. The eastern portion of the republic is nearly uninhabited and chiefly covered with low mimosa trees.

CORDOVA, the capital, stands on the small River Primero, in a valley about 200 feet below the surrounding plains. It is regularly laid out, well built, and has a cathedral; and a university erected by the Jesuits; the population is about 14,000 souls. Alta Gracia, a neat town near the base of the Sierra de Cordova, contains 4000 inhabitants.

The REPUBLIC of SAN LUIS DE LA PUNTA lies west of Cordova and extends to the Rio Desaguadero. On the south it is contiguous to the country of the Ranqueles. On the north it extends over the greater part of the *travesia desert*, which borders on the Great Salinas. It is said to be a very poor country. The northern districts are almost uninhabited, and in many places covered with low mimosas; in others, without trees and vegetation, and covered with saline efflorescences or with sand. The southern districts are crossed by rocky ridges. It has a few pasture grounds for cattle and goats. There are some silver mines in the Cerro Solosta, called Las Carolinas, which are worked on a small scale. The climate is dry and hot; rain seldom occurs.

SAN LUIS DE LA PUNTA, the capital, has about 1500 inhabitants.

The REPUBLIC of MENDOZA comprehends the country west of the Desaguadero de Guanacache as far as the Andes, including the Vale of Uspallata. It extends north to south for about 32 deg. south latitude. This republic is flat, with the exception of the Paramilla eastern range of the Andes. The soil is sandy, with little grass, and occasionally covered with mimosa trees. When irrigated, the soil will yield abundant crops of wheat, Indian corn, and lucerne. Rain and dew are rare, except in the southern districts on the banks of the River Diamante, where more corn may be raised without irrigation. The climate is dry and healthy, though great heat is experienced in summer. It is very favourable to the growth of figs, peaches, apples, nuts, olives, and grapes. There are some

silver-mines notwithstanding the Paramilla Range on the side of the Vale of Uspallata. Cattle and horses are not numerous; mules are exported.

MENDOZA, the capital, is near the eastern declivity of the Paramilla Range, 4891 feet above the sea-level, and is a well-built town, with about 12,000 inhabitants. Two well-frequented roads lead from this place to Chile, over the Andes, by the mountain-passes of Uspallata and of Portillo. San Martin, or Villanueva, west of Mendoza, is a thriving place, with about 2000 inhabitants.

The REPUBLIC of SAN JUAN DE LA FRONTERA extends along the base of the Andes from 32 deg. to 30 deg. south latitude, and includes the northern part of the Vale of Uspallata. The soil resembles that of Mendoza. The climate is healthy, though dry. Both rain and dew are rare; the heat is not excessive. It is very favourable to fruit, and wine constitutes an article of export.

SAN JUAN, the capital, is situated on the banks of the Rio de San Juan, and is said to have a population of 8000. It has some export trade in the wines and brandies of the country, and in foreign goods for home consumption. A road from it leads to the mountain-pass of Patos, in the Andes, whence it descends into Chile by the Vale of Putaendo.

The REPUBLIC of RIOJA lies principally within the Andes, between 30 deg. and 28 deg. south latitude: it extends over two valleys. The Vale of Guadacol, between the Andes and the Sierra de Famatina, is fertile, and not too warm for the growth of wheat; it has also copper mines; but neither the wheat nor the copper can be brought to market on account of the expense. The inhabitants, who are mostly of Indian origin, hunt the vicuña for its skin. Some silver mines are worked on a small scale.

RIOJA, the capital, not far from the eastern base of the Sierra Velasco, has some trade in the products of the country, and between 3000 and 4000 inhabitants.

The REPUBLIC of CATAMARCA lies further north, extending over some valleys which run south and north, and intersect the mountain-region of the Despoblado, where it is contiguous to the principal chain of the Andes. It appears to contain several fertile valleys between the mountains, in which cattle are reared and corn raised. Cotton and red pepper are cultivated for exportation.

CATAMARCA, the capital, contains about 4000 inhabitants.

The REPUBLIC of SANTIAGO DEL ESTERO lies to the east of the Great Salinas, between 27 deg. and 30 deg. south latitude, and 62 deg. and 65 deg. west longitude. It comprehends two narrow and long cultivable tracts, along both banks of the rivers Dulce and Salado, and vary from one to five miles in width. On the cultivable tracts wheat and Indian corn yield good crops. Cochineal to some extent is collected, as well as honey and wax. The climate is

considered to be the hottest in South America. Ponchos, blankets, and coarse saddle-cloths are made and sent to the neighbouring countries.

SANTIAGO DEL ESTERO, the capital, on the banks of the Rio Dulce, contains about 4000 inhabitants. Matara is on the Rio Salado, and from that place downwards the river is navigable for large river-boats.

The REPUBLIC of TUCUMAN, north of Santiago del Estero, lies between 26 deg. and 27 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and 62 deg. and 66 deg. west longitude. The western districts, which are contiguous to the Sierra Aconquija, are chiefly covered with high mountains, among which there are a few narrow valleys. The mountains are covered with high forest trees, and contain good pasture. There are also some mines of gold, silver, copper, and lead. The central part of the republic extends over the most fertile and best cultivated part of the plain of Tucuman. It is considered the Garden of the Provinces of La Plata. It yields wheat, maize, rice, tobacco, and sugar. The cattle are of large size. Horses and mules are exported. The climate is dry and hot, but healthy. The eastern districts on both sides of the Rio Salado are rather sterile, and there are only a few settlements on the banks of the river. A great number of Indians within this republic speak the Quichua language.

TUCUMAN, the capital, situated on a plateau, contains about 8000 inhabitants. It has some trade, and exports horses and mules to Bolivia.

The REPUBLIC of SALTA is the most northern of the Argentine republics, and extends over the Despoblado range of the Andes, and the plains which lie between the rivers Salado and Vermejo, south of the mountains. Its boundaries are not well defined, and its area is supposed to equal that of Paraguay. The few Indians collect some gold, and hunt the vicuñas, alpacas, and chinchilla, for their skins and wool, and bring down ice and salt to the valleys. Near the southern slope of the mountains are the silver mines of San Antonio de los Cobres and of Acay. The elevated valleys produce wheat and maize; the declivities are generally wooded or pasture lands. The valleys along the rivers Salado and Lavayen, produce rice, maize, and tropical fruits, sugar, indigo, cotton, and tobacco. On the banks of the Vermejo cochineal is collected, and the coco-plant is raised; the tree from which the yerba-maté, or Paraguay tea, is obtained, is indigenous. The climate is as various as the productions. On the Despoblado the weather all the year round resembles winter in England; the low country on the Rio Vermejo suffers from excessive heat. The valleys have a more or less temperate climate, according to their elevation.

SALTA, the capital, is situated in a valley, exposed to inundations; it contains from 8000 to 9000 inhabitants; its commerce is inconsiderable. Jujuy, with about 4000 inhabitants, on the banks of the river of the same name, is a trading place, though the mountain-pass begins here which runs northward to Tupiza, Potosi,

and Chuquisaca, and over the Abra de Cortaderas, about 12,000 feet above the level of the sea.

The population of all the Argentine states, or provinces, is vaguely estimated as follows, viz. :—Buenos Ayres, about 210,000 ; Uruguay, 115,000 ; Entre Rios, 34,000 ; Corrientes, 38,000 ; Misiones, 9000 ; Paraguay, 400,000 ; Santa Fé, 17,000 ; Cordova, 86,000 ; San Luis, 24,000 ; Mendoza, 40,000 ; San Juan, 24,000 ; Rioja, 19,000 ; Catamarca, 34,000 ; Santiago, 48,000 ; Tucuman, 44,000 ; Salta, 55,000.

In the southern provinces the inhabitants consist chiefly of the Spanish race. In Paraguay the Misiones and Corrientes, the Guarani Indians, who were civilised by the Jesuits, constitute the great majority of the people. Indian families are settled in Entre Rios, Santa Fé, and Cordova. In the republics north of 28 deg. south latitude, there are Indians who speak the Quichua, or Peruvian, language. A great portion of the region is still the undisputed property of native tribes. Numerous tribes inhabit the Gran Chacó, between the Paraguay and Paraná, and the Rio Solado. The Guaycuru tribe is said to be the most numerous. The Ranqueles, and unknown tribes, inhabit the country south of 35 deg. south, west from Buenos Ayres to the Cordilleras. The pampas Indians are a nomade people, who move over the pastures with their cattle.

The GUACHOS, of Spanish race, are also scattered over the pampas. They are said not to be numerous, and live in huts. They are early trained to ride, and hunt with the lasso. They live on animal food, the produce of their herds and hunting. Their drink is water, are strong, and can endure great fatigue. They are described as hospitable to strangers.

Manufactures.—A few woollen stuffs are made at Santiago del Estero, and sent to the neighbouring countries. British manufactures have hitherto been chiefly used.

Trade.—The internal commerce is considerable, as almost every republic produces something peculiar, which is in demand in the neighbouring countries. It is also facilitated by the level character of the country, and its climate, which is generally dry ; the roads, also, are tolerably good. The navigation on the Paraguay River extends north to Brazil, on the Paraná up to the Apipé, on the Uruguay up to the Salto Chico, to which places vessels of 300 tons burden may ascend. By this inland navigation the products of the northern republics are brought to Buenos Ayres or Monte Video, whence they are exported. But the commerce with the neighbouring republics and to Brazil is unimportant; horses and mules were formerly exported in large numbers to Bolivia and Peru ; this trade is said to have nearly ceased. The ports of Monte Video and Buenos Ayres engross nearly all the maritime trade.

Government.—The existing government of Buenos Ayres, under Rosas, is a military despotism. Most of the inland provinces, and especially the Guacho inhabitants of the pastoral regions, are, in a great degree, independent.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE REPUBLIC OF PARAGUAY.

THE whole of Paraguay and the republic of Monte Video have scarcely at any time, since the revolt and independence of the Argentine Provinces, joined in the federal association of republican states, nominally included in the Argentine Confederation.

Paraguay comprehends the extensive region between the rivers Paraná and Paraguay, and extends from between 21 deg. and 27 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and 54 deg. to nearly 58 deg. west longitude. Estimated area vaguely stated at from 70,000 to 90,000 square miles.

It was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, or Gaboto, in 1526 ; Alcedo describes it thus ;—

“ It is of a warm and moist temperature, from the number of woods, lakes, and rivers with which it is covered, and from the various overflowings which are formed between the months of November and April, when the rains are most abundant. It is watered by an infinite number of rivers, the principal of which are, first that of its own name, and then those in the northern parts of Porrudos, Mboteley, Tobati, Ipane Piray, and others of less note ; and in the south part, those of Cañabé and Tibiquari, this dividing this province from that of the Rio de la Plata of Buenos Ayres.

“ The woods are many, and in them grow in abundance sour oranges, citrons, limes, and other wild fruits, of which conserves are made. There are also trees of very good timber, and fine wood, such as cedars, *petoroques*, *urundais*, *tajibos*, and others ; of the first they make canoes and slabs, which they carry to Buenos Ayres for vessels and for other uses. In these woods are found a variety of birds and animals, such as rabbits, hares, partridges, wild-boar, deer, and other species of creatures less known, such as *quiriquinchos*, *mulitas*, and *aperiades* ; but from the great quantity of neat cattle, the flesh of which is preferred to any other here, none of the above animals are ever hunted ; sometimes, however, the inhabitants will hunt geese, which abound in the lakes and the shores of the river, and kill great numbers. Here also breed goldfinches, nightingales, larks, green parrots, long-tailed parrots, others of most beautiful plumage, and peacocks ; nor are there wanting ostriches, and birds of prey.”

The Jesuits laboured so assiduously and successfully to convert the Indians, that the greater part of the country came under the power of the former ; they extended their dominion over Paraguay, and organised the Indians into a disciplined body of militia, and prevented all persons, both Spaniards and Portuguese, from entering their territories.

From Paraguay and Paraná they drew great revenues ; their converts worked for them cheerfully, at stated periods, on their plantations ; and the Jesuits not only imported every thing necessary for their people from Europe, but they also sent

immense sums to the superiors of their order at Rome. The Indians were carefully kept in ignorance of the Spanish language; they were instructed in all sorts of useful arts, and trained to the fatigues of military life. They were formed into large bodies of cavalry and infantry, and well supplied with arms and ammunition: as cavalry, the aboriginals were distinguished equestrians.

Many hundred thousands of the native races came under the authority of, and became infatuated subjects to, the Jesuit fathers. But in 1750 the courts of Madrid and Lisbon entered into a treaty for the purpose of definitively fixing the boundaries of their respective possessions in the western world.

Commissions were appointed in 1752, to carry this treaty into execution. The representations of the Jesuits, who secretly thwarted the extension of the Portuguese limits, caused a war between Spain and Portugal, in which the Indians took an active part against the Portuguese. The court of Lisbon, in consequence, or rather the Marquis of Pombal, began to entertain suspicions of the real motive of the Jesuits in forming such extensive establishments in America.

Soon after, a trial was instituted against one of the order in France by some of the merchants concerned in speculations at Martinique, which had involved the society in debt. On this trial the *institute* of their order, and their registers were examined, and found to contain principles and doctrines subversive of monarchy, and of the interests of the kingdom. It was consequently decreed to suppress the order of Jesuits in France. On the year following, the King of Portugal was assassinated, and it was resolved to expel the Jesuits from that kingdom.

This was followed by their expulsion from Spain and Naples, in 1767, and in 1773 Pope Clement (Gangarelli) XIV. totally abolished the society.

They were banished from America soon after, and the *cure* of the native tribes they had converted, was transferred to priests of other orders, but chiefly to the Franciscans, and the government was placed in the hands of civil officers.

On their expulsion from the territories on the banks of the Paraná, there were discovered, in thirty settlements alone, no less than 769,590 horses, 13,900 mules, and 271,540 sheep.

The *presidios*, or garrisons of this province, when under Spanish rule, were nineteen in number, without counting the capital, in which was a body of 350 guardsmen, as well of infantry as of horse.

Besides these, there were boats which plied on the rivers to impede the passes to the infidels, or to surprise and cut off their retreats.

"The aforesaid garrisons were not only a check to the Indians, but they excluded from the navigation of the river any foreign vessel, independently that it required great skill in any navigator inexperienced with these parts not to take a wrong course, from the number of mouths and creeks which present themselves, and which have often misled."—*Alcedo*.

The greater part of the natives are described by Alcedo and other Spanish authorities as of the Guarani nation, descendants of those who were

“Converted by San Francisco Solano and his companions, with the exception of some families of the Monteses, Canguias, and other nations since reduced. Here were also four new *reducciones* made, which were under the charge of the Jesuits, called San Estonislao, San Joaquin, Nuestra Senora de Belen, and El Santo Corazon. In each of these settlements was an Indian corregidor without jurisdiction, and appointed only to regard the proceedings of the other corregidores, and to cause to be fulfilled the orders of the curate and of the administrator of the goods of the settlement. Each of them had two alcaldes, and the other officers of the *cabildo*, and these, as well as the corregidor, were elected by the influence of the curate, who knew the abilities of his Indians; but these elections were confirmed by the governor of the province; and to the curate was assigned ten per cent of the profits of his settlement. Ever since the first establishment of these settlements, there was allotted to each the territory thought necessary for sowing of seeds and the breeding of cattle, and when the harvest was gathered in, it was put into one common granary, to the end that it might be divided equally amongst all as their necessities might require, by the administrator; the same practice was observed with regard to the rations of meat. With the excess of the corn and cattle a means was procured of adorning the churches, of assisting the sick, and of promoting public works. Neither Spaniards, mulattoes, nor negroes were admitted into these settlements except as traders.

“The ecclesiastical government was well organised under the religious order of San Francisco, and amongst the first converters were enumerated Father Alonzo de Buena-ventura, and Father Juan de San Bernardo, a lay-brother who suffered martyrdom under the Caazapas Indians. At daybreak mass was said every morning, *with fine music*, and on festival days somewhat later, with a discourse regularly by the curate. This finished, the *cabildo* went to receive its orders for the day, and the same were imparted to the whole settlement, that every one might know his occupation. The matrons had their tasks assigned to them proportionate to their strength and capacity, and the unmarried and girls remained singing and reciting prayers for the morning, after the mass was finished, in the court-yard of the church, and repeated the same at nightfall. The rest of the day they were employed in assisting their mothers, whilst the men were employed in different handicraft works, as carpentering, sculpture, musical instrument making, weaving, and other mechanical arts and employments, for which they had excellent masters. Every night the *cabildo* came to the curate to inform him of what had happened in the course of the day, and the people, after saying the rosary, betook themselves to rest.

“These Indians paid no other tribute than personal service to those under whom they lived notwithstanding it had been attempted by the king to introduce a different system. In the settlement of Itape, for instance, there was no vassalage, but the Indians there assisted with their persons and rafts all those who passed in the time of the floods a large arm of the River Tibiquari, by which led the road to Villarica.

“This province has suffered, from its first formation, various convulsions and alterations, from being divided into parties, formed from vain ideas of honour or interest, and has been the scene of much bloodshed. To its bishopric, which was erected in 1547, belonged also the settlements of Paranà, situate to the south-east.”—*Alcedo*.

Along the Paranà, and along the Paraguay, north to Angostura, the country is low, marshy, and without fuel. Wooded marshes occur further north. The greater part of the interior country is hilly, and in some parts mountainous. The hills are covered with forests; the valleys and plains are nearly destitute of wood, and afford excellent pasture-ground. The climate is salubrious and temperate. Its rainy season lasts from March to June. The productions are

numerous. The Yerba-maté, or Paraguay tea, was, it is stated, exported formerly to the amount of 8,000,000 lbs. Great quantities of timber are, however, floated down to Buenos Ayres. Tobacco, sugar, and cotton have been also exported. The indigo-plant and caoutchouc-tree grow wild. Exclusive of the navigable Paraguay and Paraná rivers, the River Tibiquari, which traverses the southern districts, is navigable in the greater part of its course.

THE Population of Paraguay, according to Azara's Work, published in 1809.

NAMES.	Date of their Foundation.	Souls.	NAMES.	Date of their Foundation.	Souls.
	years.	number.		years.	number.
Yta (s)	1536	965	Brought forward		5,658
Yaguaron (s)	1536	2,093	Carimbatay (p)	1760	3,972
Ypane (s)	1538	278	Villarica (t)	1576	1,014
Guarambare (s)	1538	368	Hiaty (p)	1773	232
Aregua (s)	1538	200	Yaca Guazu (p)	1785	866
Altos (s)	1538	869	Boby (p)	1789	427
Atira (s)	1538	972	Arroyos (p)	1781	1,227
Tobaty (s)	1538	932	Ajos (p)	1758	715
Ytape (s)	1673	124	Cariy (p)	1770	654
Caazapa (s)	1607	725	Ybitimiri (p)	1783	620
Yuty (s)	1610	674	Piribebui (p)	1640	3,595
S. Maria de Fe (s)	1592	1,144	Caacup (p)	1770	1,066
Santiago (s)	1592	1,097	S. Roque (p)	1770	733
S. Ignacio Miri (s)	1555	806	Quarepoty (p)	1783	540
S. Ignacio Guazu (s)	1609	864	Pirayu (p)	1769	2,352
Santa Rosa (s)	1698	1,283	Paraguay (p)	1775	507
S. Cosme (s)	1634	1,036	Capiata (p)	1640	5,305
Ytapua (s)	1614	1,409	Ytangua (p)	1728	2,235
Candelaria (s)	1627	1,514	S. Lorenzo (p)	1775	1,720
Santa Anna (s)	1633	1,430	Villeta (p)	1714	3,098
Corpus (s)	1622	2,267	Remolinos (p)	1777	458
Trinidad (s)	1706	1,017	Carapegua (p)	1725	3,346
Jesus (s)	1685	1,185	Quiindy (p)	1733	1,894
S. Joaquín (s)	1746	854	Quiquiho (p)	1777	1,136
S. Estanislado (s)	1749	729	Acaay (p)	1783	858
Belen (s)	1760	361	Ybicuy (p)	1766	1,500
	1536	7,088	Caapucu (p)	1787	659
Luque (p)	1635	3,813	Neembucu (t)	1779	1,730
Frontira (p)	1718	2,187	Laureles (p)	1790	621
Lambare (p)	1766	825	Taquaras (p)	1791	520
Limpio (p)	1785	1,769	Emboscada (m)	1740	840
Concepcion (t)	1773	1,551	Tabapy (m)	1653	644
Yquamandiyu (p)	1784	979	Loreto, S.	1555	1,519
Curuguaty (t)	1715	2,254			
Carried forward		45,658	Total of souls		92,347
Spaniards inhabiting Indian settlements not comprised in the above					5,133
			Total population in 1809		97,480

Note.—The letter (c) indicates city ; (t) town ; (p) parish ; (s) settlement of Indians ; (m) settlement of mulattoes of people of colour.

The state of Paraguay is situated on the eastern bank of the River Paraguay, which, with the Bermejo, flows into the Paraná. Aided by Buenos Ayres, Paraguay was freed from Spanish domination. In a Spanish work on the Argentine republics published in 1825, the author says of Paraguay.

“It occupies an obscure place in politics, and maintains no social or mercantile relation with any part of the world, for which state of seclusion it is favoured by its detached local situation. Without knowing whether this circumstance ought to be attributed to the rustic character of the only person (Dr. Francia) who has governed Paraguay during the greater part of that time, or to the constitutional apathy and ignorance of the persons governed, the fact is, that, notwithstanding it followed the sentiment of the whole territory as regards its separation from Spain, that province has not only taken no part in the war of independence, by which it has incurred a general odium ; but also, since that

moment, has cut off all communication with the contiguous and united provinces, and thus continued, till the present time, to prevent the exportation of its interesting productions, and to prohibit the return of all foreigners or natives, with very few exceptions, who came for the purpose of introducing ultra-marine merchandise into Paraguay.

“Paraguay should fill a much more important station than it did under the Spanish government; principally on account of its abundant mountain forests, growing timber of all kinds, well adapted for ship-building; which, in fact, has always been one of its principal branches of commerce. Most of the small vessels, employed in the trade of all the internal rivers, have been constructed there; and in Paraguay also some ships have been built, which have navigated the River Paraná, in ballast, as far as Buenos Ayres; that is to say, a distance of 400 leagues. In the year 1824, one of these ships sailed to Lima, after having made several voyages to Europe. The other productions, such as the Paraguay tea (*yerba-maté*, or *chenopodium ambrosioides*), which is greatly superior to that of Brazil, and of which, in that part of America, there is a greater consumption than of tea from China, in the United States—*coloured tobacco*, which, in some respects, is superior to that of the Havannah, and which will equal it in all, when a better system of gathering and growing is adopted—cotton, of which considerable exports might be made even to Europe—and, in short, many other productions, such as the earth pistachio (*mani*, or the *Arachis hypogea*), sugar, reed-cane, honey, &c. &c. &c., will all give to Paraguay, whenever it ceases to be the *Great China* of South America, the place of one of the most distinguished provinces. M. Bompland, who was the companion of Baron Humboldt in his travels, is still (in 1824) living in Paraguay. He was in the towns of Misiones, situated between Corrientes and Paraguay, pursuing the researches which he was, as a naturalist, employed to make by the government of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata; which circumstance exciting jealousy in the ruling authority of Paraguay, it would not suffer him or his attendants to leave its territory, or even to send copies of the insects he had collected, but caused him to be forcibly conducted to the capital, where he lives at liberty, following the medical profession, but without hope of escaping from that imprisonment, except through some sudden caprice of that *stoical governor*, or the natural course of events.”

ASUNSION, the capital, situated near the banks of the Paraguay, has about 10,000 inhabitants, and a considerable trade in the produce of the country. Villa Real de Concepcion, with 4000 inhabitants, lies further north on the Paraguay, and is the place to which the produce of the forests of Yerba-Maté is brought: these forests cover the hills from sixty to eighty miles east of the capital.

The more recent accounts of Paraguay, by Robertson and others, describe the state of cultivation superior to that of the neighbouring Argentine states. White-washed cottages were, says Mr. Robertson, frequently seen among the trees; and around them were considerable fields of cotton, yucca, and tobacco. Indian corn, and sugar-cane, were frequently seen in the vicinity of the farm-houses; and there was abundance of wood and prickly pears, with the latter the cultivated country and paddocks are well provided. The dictator possessed nearly half the country; the savannah, pasture-lands and forests, the estates of the Jesuit missions, and other corporate religious bodies, and many country-houses and farming-establishments, were confiscated and seized by him in the name of the state. It is but justice to say that he sedulously improved all these properties, and rendered them productive. On some parts large cattle and horse farms

were established. He let others at moderate or nominal rents, subjected to be well cultivated. His cavalry was supplied by the pasture farms. Monthly reports of the farms were invariably demanded and received by him. He extended the agricultural operations far beyond annual gatherings of *maté*, or tea, the culture of some tobacco, sugar-cane, and yucca. In 1820 the plague of locusts overran and destroyed eighty leagues of circuit. To avert famine, he compelled the farmers to sow a second crop; the harvest of which was most abundant. By despotic regulations, he extended his agricultural improvements over the whole country. Rice, maize, cotton, culinary vegetables were grown; and the breeding of cattle and horses was extensively promoted. Paraguay tea is as much used in Chile, La Plata, Peru, and Brazil, as China tea in England. He also compelled them to establish manufactories. His government was absolute, though the whole was nominally republican. He allowed of no public debt. If the war between Buenos Ayres and Monte Video were ended;—if those countries were tranquillised, the period will have arrived when a very lucrative trade may be carried on with the fertile region of Paraguay and the countries drained by the Paraná and its affluents. In his day Francia may have, as a dictator, prepared this state for future prosperity.

CHAPTER XXX.

MONTE VIDEO, OR URUGUAY.

THE republic of *Uruguay*, or *Banda Oriental*, extends from the northern coast and banks of the La Plata, to the southern boundary of Brazil. It is but imperfectly explored from the Atlantic to the River Uruguay. This state extends on the west, along the Uruguay River about 300 miles, and on the Atlantic for about 200 miles. The average width, from east to west, exceeds 230 miles. Estimated area 69,000 square miles.

Uruguay has generally an undulating fertile soil, with occasional broken interruptions, and is almost destitute of forest trees. The climate is temperate; it never freezes. Rain falls abundantly during winter, but seldom in summer. Cultivation is neglected for pasturage. Cattle and horses form the wealth of the inhabitants. The articles of export are hides, skins, hair, horns, and jerked beef. Sheep breeding and rearing is almost entirely neglected.

In a Spanish work, which we have quoted, Monte Video is asserted to be favoured by nature, as if it had been selected for the display of fertility and

beauty, and not less important on account of its geographical situation, at the mouth of the River La Plata, forty leagues distant from the capital city of Buenos Ayres. Its climate, which has sensibly improved during the last forty years, is temperate and humid; but as that quality is moderated by the invariably dry land winds from the north-west—commonly called *passageros*, because they pass through the open plains of Buenos Ayres—and by its proximity to the ocean, the temperature of its atmosphere is the most healthy possible. In the year 1810, that province numbered a population of from 60,000 to 70,000 souls, including that of the city, which was not less than 20,000. In 1825, however, it scarcely contained from 40,000 to 50,000, that is, 10,000 in the city, and the remainder in the country. There are many inhabited places in it: as, Maldonado, Colonia, Santa Lucia, Camelones, San Jose, San Carlos, Soriano, and Cerro Largo, which are all towns; and the villages are Toledo, Pando, Rocha, Penarol, Piedras, San Salvador, Minas, Florida, Porongos, Colla, Bacas, Nivoras, Espinilla, Mercedes, Paisandù, and Hervidera. The decrease of population was occasioned first by the war with Spain, which in that territory was carried on as in no other part of the united provinces; by the civil war which raged there, during the revolution against Spain; and also by the domination of the Portuguese, or Brazilians, from which, being universally detested, the natives have fled in great numbers, emigrating to the other provinces. Monte Video was peopled, little more than about a century ago, by a colony sent from Buenos Ayres. At that time the country was occupied by a multitude of Indians, of whom now only remain the very few who live in the remote parts, known by the name of *Charrecas*. The new colonists found the country abounding with vicuna. Since that time the soil, fertile in all parts, even in the mountains with which it abounds, appears to have been used particularly for grazing, its cattle having continued all along to be the staple branch of the commerce of Monte Video; not only by reason of the exportation of vicuna and horse-hides, but also of salted meat and tallow. Monte Video at one time possessed thirty-three establishments for curing meat; each of them killing at least one hundred head of cattle daily, without that consumption being felt in regard to the vicuna, the multiplication of which race is assisted there by an infinite variety of natural circumstances. Nearly the whole country abounds in excellent pastures, of excellent quality, and fertilised by the irrigation of rivers, rivulets, and springs. At each step the traveller finds himself meeting with streams of pure water, the scenery presents a constant succession of hills, eminences, meadows, wilds, rugged defiles, and mountains. The principal rivers are, the *Uruguay*, *Negro*, *Ybiqui*, *Cebollati*, *Yi*, *Santa Lucia*, *Guegisay*, *Diaman*, *Arapei*, *Guarey*, *Olimar*, *Pardo*, *Tacuari*, *Yguaron*, and *Tacuarembò*. The currents of these rivers are formed by countless streams, “many of them very

considerable, which run in all directions, excepting an elevated ridge of land which crosses the whole province, and is called *Cuchilla grande*. Almost all these rivers might be made navigable through the greatest part of their course. Those that are now navigated are the Uruguay, Negro, Cebollati, and Santa Lucia."

MONTÉ VIDEO, situated on the north shore of the Rio de la Plata, was founded near its mouth by order of Field-marshal Don Bruno de Zavala, in 1726. "Until 1807 it was a small place, having only one parish and a convent of the order of San Francisco. It had once a house of Jesuits. It is situate on a lofty spot, upon a bay. It has a citadel or castle, which is badly constructed, with four bulwarks and some batteries for its defence—the same is the residence of the governor. The town, which is well fortified with a strong wall and sufficient artillery, is inhabited by more than 10,000 souls, amongst whom are some rich and noble families. The climate is excellent, cheerful, and healthy, the soil fertile and abounding in vegetable productions, and flesh and fish are so plentiful as to cost almost nothing. Its principal commerce consists in the hides of cattle, and these are killed merely for the above perquisites. It is 111 miles east-south-east from Buenos Ayres, in latitude 34 deg. 50 min. 30 sec. south, and longitude 56 deg. 16 min. west." Such is the description of Alcedo.

Few places in Spanish America have experienced a greater change in political consequence and physical energies, since the time Alcedo wrote, than Uruguay. Independently of its wars with Buenos Ayres, it has been rendered famous by the English expedition which visited the Rio la Plata in 1806. It was for some little time in possession of the British troops, and finally evacuated at the beginning of September, 1807.

The town of Monte Video, according to Mr. Mawe, is tolerably well built, standing on a gentle elevation at the extremity of a small peninsula, and is walled entirely round—

"Its population amounted in 1820 to between 15,000 and 18,000 souls. The harbour, although shoal, and quite open to the *pamperos*, is the best in the Rio de la Plata; it has a very soft bottom of deep mud. When the wind continues for some time at north-east, ships drawing twelve feet water are frequently aground for several days, so that the harbour cannot be called a good one for vessels above 300 or 400 tons."

There are but few capital buildings; the town in general consists of houses of one story, floored with brick, and provided with very poor conveniences. In the square is a handsome cathedral, awkwardly situated; opposite to it is an edifice divided into a town-house or *cabildo*, and a prison. The streets having no pavement, are clouded with dust or loaded with mud as the weather happens to be dry or wet. In seasons of drought the want of water is a serious inconvenience, the spring which principally supplies the town being two miles distant.

Provisions are cheap and abundant. Beef is plentiful, and, though rarely fat or fine, makes excellent soup. *The pork is not eatable.*

The inhabitants of Monte Video, particularly the Creolians, are described as humane and well-disposed, *when not actuated by political or religious prejudices*. Their habits of life are indolent and temperate. The ladies are generally affable and polite, fond of dress, and neat and cleanly in their persons; they adopt the English or French fashions at home, but go abroad usually in black, and always covered with a large veil or mantle. At mass they invariably appear in black silk, bordered with deep fringes. They delight in conversation, are vivacious, and very courteous to strangers.

The chief trade of Monte Video consists in hides, tallow, and dried or jerked beef: the two first are exported to Europe, and the latter is sent to the West Indies, especially to the Havannah. The coarse copper from Chile in square cakes, is sometimes shipped here, as well as *maté*, or tea of Paraguay, the infusion of which is as common a beverage in these parts as tea is in England.*

The climate of Monte Video is humid. The weather in the winter months (June, July, and August), is at times boisterous, and the air in that season is generally keen and piercing. In summer the serenity of the atmosphere is frequently interrupted by thunder-storms, preceded by terrific lightning, which frequently damages the shipping,—and followed by heavy rain, which sometimes destroys the harvest. The heat is oppressive, and is rendered more so to strangers by the swarms of mosquitoes, which infest every apartment.

The town stands on a basis of granite. The high mount on the opposite side of the bay is crowned with a lighthouse, and gives name to the town.

The vicinity of Monte Video, is agreeably diversified with gently sloping hills, and long valleys watered by beautiful streams; but the prospects they afford are rarely enlivened by traces of cultivation; few enclosures are seen except the gardens of the principal merchants. The same neglect appears in a north-east direction from the town, where varieties of hill, valley, and water prevail, and seem to want only the embellishment of cultivated and wooded scenery to complete

* The inhabitants were by no means opulent before the English took the garrison, but through the misfortunes of the latter at Buenos Ayres, and the losses of our commercial adventurers by ill-judged and imprudent speculations, they were considerably enriched. The great prospects indulged in England, before the expedition to the Plata, of immense profits by trade to that river, have generally ended in ruin; very few, indeed, of the speculators have escaped without considerable loss. Property, once litigated, at Buenos Ayres, might be considered in a fair way for confiscation: and in case of its having been deposited until certain questions were decided, restitution was generally obtained at the loss of one-half. Not contented with the profits accruing from his commission, the consignee seldom scrupled to take every advantage which possession of the property afforded him, of furthering his own interests at the expense of his correspondent. The dread of a legal process could be but a slight check upon him; for in the Spanish courts of justice, as well as in others, a native and a stranger are seldom upon equal terms. Other circumstances have concurred to enrich the inhabitants of Monte Video. It is a fact that the English exported thither goods to the amount of 1,500,000*l.* sterling, a small portion of which, on the restoration of the place to the Spaniards, was reshipped for the Cape of Good Hope and the West Indies; the remainder was for the most part sacrificed at whatever price the Spaniards chose to give. As their own produce advanced in proportion as ours lowered in price, those among them who speculated gained considerably. The holders of English goods sold their stock at upwards of fifty per cent profit immediately after the evacuation of the place.—*Mawe*.

the landscape. Some wood, indeed, grows on the margin of the Riochuelo, which is used for building hovels and for fuel. The want of wood occasions great inconvenience and expense; wood for mechanical purposes is extremely scarce, and planks are so dear that few houses with a boarded floor are to be found.

About twenty-five leagues north-east from Monte Video, is an irregular ridge of granite mountains extending nearly north and south, and the country from this distance gradually assumes a rugged appearance. The ravines of these stony wilds, and the wooded margins of the rivers, afford shelter to ferocious animals, such as jaguars, here called tigers, small lions, and ounces; wild dogs breed in the rocks, and at times make great havoc among the young cattle. The farms in this district, for the most part, include tracts of land from twenty to thirty miles in length by half that extent in breadth, watered by clear streams. Herds of cattle are bred upon them; at one time it was calculated that each square league maintained 1500 or 2000 head, but the war and anarchy must have diminished these numbers.

At the distance of about forty leagues north-east from Monte Video, the hills gradually lessen and disappear; the country opens on the left, and is intersected by numerous rivulets.

The country in this part may in general be termed rocky and mountainous. Solid rock frequently appears on the surface, and in many places projects in masses; the mountains and rocks are of granite; fine red and yellow jasper, chalcedony, and quartz, are not unfrequently found loose on the surface. Some fossils of the asbestos kind, and some very poor oxides of iron, are likewise to be met with. The limestone on one ridge is of a close compact kind, united to transparent quartz in a tabular form, standing, as it were, in laminæ perpendicular to the horizon. The cavities formed by the laminæ afford refuge for reptiles.

The limestone is loosened by wedges and levers, and brought away in large slabs to the kilns, where it is broken into fragments of a convenient size, and burnt with wood. The lime, when slaked, is measured, put into sacks made of green hides, and sent in large carts drawn by oxen, principally to Colonia, Monte Video, and Buenos Ayres.

Barriga Negra is distant about 160 miles north-east from Monte Video, about 120 from Maldonado, and ninety from the town of Minas. The surrounding country is mountainous, well-watered, and partly wooded; the banks of the streams are covered with trees, rarely, however, of large size; for the creeping plants, interweaving with the shoots, check their growth and form an impenetrable thicket. In this district are the great breeding estates, many of which were stocked with from 60,000 to 200,000 head of cattle. These are herded principally by Peons from Paraguay, who live in hovels at convenient distances. Ten thousand head are allotted to four or five Peons, who collect them every morning and

evening; and once or twice a month drive them into pens where they are kept for a night. The cattle by this mode of management are tamed; a vicious beast is never seen among them. Breeding, alone, is attended to; neither butter nor cheese is made, and milk is scarcely known as an article of food. The constant food is beef, eaten generally without bread, and frequently without salt. This habitual subsistence on animal food would probably engender diseases, were it not corrected by regularly drinking their favourite *maté*.

The dwellings are wretched, the walls being formed by a few upright posts interwoven with branches of trees, plastered with mud inside and out, and the roof thatched with grass and rushes. The furniture of these hovels consists of a few skulls of horses, which serve for seats, and of a hide to lie upon. The principal cooking utensil is a rod or spit of iron stuck in the ground in an oblique position, so as to incline over the fire. The beef transfixed on this spit is left to roast until the part next the fire is done enough, then turned round until the whole is cooked. Fuel in some parts is so extremely scarce that a strange expedient is resorted to. The mares are kept solely for breeding, and are never trained to labour; they generally exceed the due proportion; many of them are frequently killed for their hides and tails, and their carcasses are used as fuel.

The Peons are chiefly emigrants from Paraguay, and among them very few women are to be found. A person may travel in these parts for days together without seeing or hearing of a single female in the course of his journey. To this circumstance may be attributed the total absence of domestic comfort in the dwellings of these wretched men, and the gloomy apathy observable in their dispositions and habits.

The dexterity of the Peons in catching cattle, by throwing a noose over them, has been frequently detailed. They throw with equal precision and effect, whether at full gallop or at rest. Their method of catching horses, by means of balls attached to leather thongs, is unerring.

In training mules and horses to draw light carts and other carriages, no harness is made use of; a saddle or pad is girded on, and a leather thong is fastened to the girth on one side, so that the animal moving forward with his body in a rather oblique direction, keeps his legs clear of the apparatus which is attached to him, and draws with considerable freedom. In the catching of cattle the Peon fastens one end of his *lasso* (or noosed thong) to the girth of his horse, who soon learns to place himself in such an attitude as to draw the ox which his rider has noosed.

The horses are spirited, and perform almost incredible labour. They seldom work longer than a week at a time, being then turned out to pasture for months together. Their sole food is grass, and the treatment they meet with is harsh and unmerciful. They are never shod.

Sheep are very scarce, and seldom or never eaten; they are kept by some persons merely for the sake of their wool, to make flocks for bedding. The cattle herds bred in many parts of this district have often tempted the Portuguese to make predatory incursions, and the country being accessible by fine open passes to the frontier, as well as to the north side of the Plata, these violations of territory have been carried on to a very serious extent. So frequent were they at one period, that it became necessary to appoint a military force to patrol the boundaries against these inroads.

Agriculture.—There is abundance of excellent clay, and plenty of wood near the margin of the rivers, yet it is rare to meet with an enclosure, even for a kitchen garden, much more so for a corn-field. They generally choose the grounds for tillage by the bank of a rivulet, so as to have one side or sometimes two sides bounded by it; the remainder is fenced in the most clumsy manner. Ploughing is performed by two oxen yoked to a crooked piece of wood about four inches in diameter, and pointed at the end. After the ground has been roughly broken up, wheat is sown, without any attempt to cleanse it from noxious seeds. While it grows up, wild oats, poppies, and other pernicious weeds grow among it in luxuriance. Indian corn, beans, melons, &c., are all treated in a similar way. The wheat is cut down with sickles and gathered into sheaves. A circular pen of from forty to sixty yards in diameter is then formed with rails and hides; in the centre of this enclosure is placed a large quantity of wheat in the straw. The pile is so formed as to have the ears on the outside. A small quantity is pulled down towards the circumference of the circle, and a herd of about twenty mares is driven in, which, being untamed, are easily frightened and made to gallop round. At this pace they are kept by means of whips for four or five hours, until the corn is trodden out of the ears, and the straw completely broken up. Another parcel of sheaves is then pulled down, and a fresh herd of mares is let in, and this operation is repeated until the whole heap is threshed, and the straw is broken into chaff. In this state it is left until the wind happens to rise, and then it is winnowed. It is sewed up in hides, and sent to the sea-ports, where biscuit is baked.

The climate and soil are favourable for the growth of grapes, apples, peaches, and every species of fruit belonging to the temperate zone, but these are not generally cultivated. The potato would thrive abundantly, but the people remain averse to improving their means of subsistence, and seem to wish for nothing beyond the bare necessities of life. The Peons, brought from Paraguay in their infancy, grow up to the age of manhood in a state of servitude, uncheered by domestic comfort; at that period they generally wander in search of employment toward the coast, where money is in greater plenty. They are for the most part an honest and harmless race, though as liable from their condi-

tion to acquire habits of gambling and intoxication, as the higher classes : many of whom fall victims to those vices.

The common people generally go without shoes and stockings: as they rarely go on foot they have seldom occasion for shoes. Some of them, particularly the Peons, make a kind of boot from the raw skins of young horses, which they frequently kill for this sole purpose. When the animal is dead, they cut the skin round the thigh, about eighteen inches above the gambrel; having stripped it, they stretch and dress it until it loses the hair and becomes white. The lower part, which covered the joint, forms the heel, and the extremity is tied up in a bunch to cover the toes. The rest of their apparel consists of a jacket, which is worn by all ranks, and a shirt and drawers made of a coarse cotton cloth brought from the Brazils. Children run about with no dress but their shirts until their fifth or sixth year. Their education is little attended to.

Among the many natural advantages which many parts of Uruguay possesses, are the frequent falls in the brooks and larger streams, which might be converted to various mechanical purposes, if the population were numerous and better instructed.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE RIVERS PLATA, PARANA, PARAGUAY, URUGUAY, AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

WERE the regions drained by the River Plata, and its great and numerous tributaries, populously settled by an enterprising people, the inland navigation which communicates with the rich soils and products of those vast and extensive regions of the Argentine republics, would render these countries among the most prosperous and powerful in the world.

The PLATA is one of the largest known rivers in South America, after the Amazon. It was discovered by Juan Diaz de Solis in 1515; who navigated it as far as a small island in latitude 34 deg. 23 min. 30 sec. south, and who, having seen on the shores some cabins, had the boldness to disembark with ten men; when they were all put to death by the aborigines. Five years afterwards, Sebastian Cabot, who, from neglect, passed from the service of the English to that of the Spaniards, was sent to discover the Strait of Magellan. But, finding himself impeded in his views by the disobedience of his crews, was under the ne-

cessity of entering the River Plata, which he navigated as far as the island discovered by Solis, and to which he gave the name of San Gabriel. Seven leagues above this island he discovered a river which he called San Salvador, and another at thirty leagues' distance, which the natives called Sarcana; where he built a fort. He then pursued his voyage as far as the conflux of the rivers Paraná and Paraguay, and leaving the former to the west, entered by the second, and had a battle with the Indians, in which he lost twenty-five men; but succeeded in routing them, taking from them treasures of silver, which they had brought from Peru; and, supposing that there was an abundance of this metal in the territories washed by the river, called it Rio de la Plata (River of Silver); whereby it lost the name of Solis, first given it by the discoverer.*

This river receives in its extensive course the water of various other large rivers. It is subject to inundations for many leagues from its banks, fertilising the land in the same manner as the Nile. The distance from the conflux of the Paraguay and Paraná to its mouth, is about 200 leagues by the course of the river. It is interspersed with beautiful islands, and is navigable for large vessels.

The Rio Plata is at its mouth about 150 miles wide; from Cape San Antonio on the south, to Point Negro on the north. From thence to the junction of the Uruguay, it preserves its name, being afterwards called the Parana. Although the whole of it is navigable, it has many shoals and rocks. Between Point Piedras on the south, and Point Yeguas on the north, it is fifty-three miles wide. The coloured water which it brings down is often visible in the Atlantic about 100 miles from its embouchure. The estuary of the Plata is generally shallow, and the navigation extends along the southern shores, but the channel along its northern shores is sufficiently deep for ships drawing about twenty feet, as far as opposite Buenos Ayres, on its southern shore. Vessels drawing more than sixteen feet of water can seldom approach nearer the town than seven or eight miles; smaller vessels enter the inner roads to within about two miles of Buenos Ayres. The navigation of its gulf, though intricate among the extensive shoals, may hereafter be rendered easy by the aid of steam tug-boats. The tides are perceptible as far as Buenos Ayres, but between Point Las Piedras and Point Yeguas the water is generally fresh.

The PARANÀ rises in the province of Minas Geraes to the south of the city

* Another version of the origin of the name is given by the Spaniards, who say that Martim de Zousa, holding the *captainship* of St. Vicent, furnished Alexo Garcia, a Portuguese, with an escort to explore the wilds to the west of Brazil. By the route of the Tieté, he reached the Paraguay, which he crossed, and penetrated into the interior. He returned, it is said, loaded with silver, and some gold; he halted on the Paraguay, waiting for his son, with some of his people, and sent at the same time to Brazil an account of the discovery. He was surprised by a body of Indians, who killed him and took his son prisoner. The following year, sixty Portuguese, who were sent in search of Garcia, were also massacred. The Spaniards who first settled on this river, seeing so much silver amongst these Indians, and supposing it to be the produce of the country, called the river La Plata.

of San Joas del Rey, in some lofty sierras, in Brazil, and flows a course for the estimated distance of more than 1000 miles, receiving innumerable tributaries, many of them navigable from the north, west, east, and south.

At about 300 miles from its mouth two falls impede its navigation. The country through which it flows is temperate and very fertile.

Alcedo informs us that the native inhabitants of its banks,

“Were laborious, lived in settlements, sowed maize twice a year, cultivated *yucas* or *mandioca*, bred fowl, and eat human flesh, not only of their own prisoners, for they were very warlike, but even that of their own dead.”

Two monks of the order of San Francisco, who accompanied the first governor on his first voyage to this region, were the first who baptised these Indians. Friar Luis de Bolanos, companion of San Francisco Solano, erected many chapels or churches in the upper districts, establishing six *reduccions*, and uniting the Indians in settlements on the banks of the rivers Ibajiba, Paranape, and Pirapo, and, for their instruction in the catechism, he made himself master of the Guaraní tongue: many of his orations in this language having been printed by the Jesuits.

The Jesuits followed up the advantages attained by their predecessors, and founded some fresh settlements, which they called *doctrinal* establishments, in 1614. The Mamelucos Paulistas of Brazil, made various irruptions against those settlements, in order to entrap prisoners, which they might carry to sell to work in the mines and at the sugar plantations of that kingdom. They carried away nearly, it is asserted, 100,000 souls; and the missionaries were compelled to withdraw the upper settlements.

Those settlements contained in the beginning of the present century about 41,000 souls, who cultivated wheat, maize, sugar, Paraguay tea, tobacco, cotton, seeds, fruit, and vegetables.

When the Jesuits were expelled, there were in the thirty settlements of the Paranà and Paraguay, 769,589 horses, 13,905 mules, and 271,537 sheep. The *government, arts, and manufactures*, which were instituted in this territory by the Jesuits were considered by the Spaniards as a problem not to be solved: whether it should prove the perfection of a republic, or that it should be looked upon as a tyrannical despotism eager only for its own interests, and the establishment of absolute power. (*See the “Christianismo felice” of Muratori, and the collection of documents for the extermination of the Jesuits, printed by order of the Spanish government.*)

The Paranà, which the first discoverers considered as the chief, on account of its abundant waters, joins the Paraguay in latitude 27 deg. 16 min.; and their united streams take the name of the Paranà.

The Rio Paranà becomes navigable for vessels of 300 tons' burden at the island

of Apipé, about 120 miles above its junction with the Paraguay. Below this junction it is studded with low islands, covered with wild orange-trees and various trees and shrubs: the deepest channel has always from two to three fathoms of water. Before its junction with the Rio Uruguay, it separates into numerous branches, which form a delta. Most of these channels are navigable for boats; that called Parana Guazu has seldom less than two fathoms and a half of water, and that of Las Palmas is the next deepest to Guazu. This river and most of its confluent bring down from the countries within the tropics to the higher latitudes a great volume of water, which inundates the low districts along its banks from February to May. The waters rise in the end of December, and increase gradually to the end of April; they descend to their lowest point in July; along the lower part of the river the inundation rises about twelve feet above the lowest water level, and leaves a slimy deposit which enriches the soil.

The Paraguay River gives its name to the state. It was first navigated by Sebastian Cabot in 1526. It rises in about 13° south latitude.

This great river from authorities relied on by Mr. Mawe, flows

“In a southern course of 600 leagues before it enters the ocean under the appellation of the Rio de la Plata. The heads of the Paraguay are 270 miles north-east from Villa Bella, and 164 miles north from Cuiaba, and divided into many branches, forming complete rivers; which, as they run south, successively unite and form the channel of this immense river, which is immediately navigable. To the west, a short distance from the main source of the Paraguay, is that of the Sypotuba, which disembogues on its west bank, in latitude 15 deg. 50 min., after a course of sixty leagues. In the upper part of this river, and near its west branch, called the Jurubanba, was formerly a gold mine, which was worked with considerable profit; but the superior advantages derived from others subsequently explored in Matto Grosso and Cuiba, caused it to be abandoned, and its site is not now known with certainty. The little River Cabaral, also auriferous, enters the Paraguay on the west side, three leagues below the mouth of the Sypotuba. On the banks of the latter lives a nation of Indians, called Barbados, from the distinction peculiar to themselves, among all the Indian nations, of having large beards.”

The confluence of the Jauru with the Paraguay was considered a point of importance, as guarding the great road between Villa Bella Cuiaba and the intermediate establishments, and in the same manner commanded the navigation of both the rivers, and defended the entrance into the interior of the latter *captainship*. The Paraguay from this place has a free navigation upwards, almost to its sources, about seventy leagues distant, with no other impediment than one large fall.

The boundary mark, which was placed at the mouth of the Jauru by the Portuguese, was, and may, if not destroyed, be still, a pyramid of beautiful marble, brought to this distant point from Lisbon. It bore inscriptions commemorative of the treaty between the courts of Spain and Portugal, by which the respective territories were defined.

The chain of mountains which extends from the sources of the Paraguay near its east bank, border the river opposite the mouth of the Jauru, and are terminated seven leagues below it by the Morro Excalvado. East of this point all is marsh; and nine leagues below it there flows into the east side of the Paraguay a deep river, called Rio Novo, discovered in 1786. The most distant sources of this river are the rivulets of Santa Anna and Bento Gomez. About latitude 17 deg. 33 min., the western banks of the Paraguay become mountainous at the north point of the Serra da Insua, which, three leagues to the south, makes a deep break to form the mouth of the Lake Gaiba. Six leagues and a half below the mouth of the Gaiba, and opposite the mountainous bank of the Paraguay, is the mouth of the St. Lourenço; twenty-six leagues above this the River Cuiaba enters its western bank: these two rivers are of great length. A tributary, the Itiquira, has been navigated to its heads, from whence the canoes were dragged over land to the Sucuriu, which falls into the Paraná. The tributaries Itiquira and Sucuriu were found to have fewer and smaller falls than the Jaquari.

The navigation to the town of Cuiaba by the river of that name, from its above-mentioned confluence, is short and easy. Three leagues above this place the Guacho-uassu enters the Cuiaba by its eastern bank, and on the same side, seven leagues further, the Guacho-mirim. From this point the river winds in a north-north-east direction, eleven leagues to the Island of Pirahim, and from thence makes a large bend to the east, receiving numerous streams, and passes the town of Cuiaba, which is situated a mile to the east of it. This town is ninety-six leagues to the east of Villa Bella, and the same distance by water from the confluence of its river with the Paraguay. It is large, and, together with its dependencies, contained, in 1807, 30,000 souls. It was then well provided with meat, fish, fruits, and all sorts of vegetables, at a cheap rate. The country is well adapted for cultivation, and has mines. They were discovered in 1718, and were estimated to produce annually, up to 1805, above twenty *arrobas* of gold of extremely fine quality.

Twenty leagues south-west of the town of Cuiaba is the settlement of St. Pedro del Rey, the largest of all the adjacent settlements, and contained, before the reign of Francia, about 2000 inhabitants. The River Cuiaba has its sources 190 miles above the town, and its banks have been cultivated along the greater part of its extent, including fourteen leagues below the town. Four leagues below the principal mouth of the River Porrudos, the Paraguay is bordered by the mountains that separate it from Gaiba on its west bank, and in this place they obtain the appellation of *Serra das Pedras de Amolar*. This is the only part said not annually to be inundated by the floods of the river.

From the Dourados, the Paraguay runs south to the Serras of Albuquerque, where it touches directly on the north point, on which is situated a village of that name. From Albuquerque the Paraguay turns to the south-west. It skirts its Serras, which terminate at the end of six leagues higher up in the Serra do Rabicho, opposite which, on the north bank of the river, is situated the lower south mouth of the Paraguay-mirim. This is an arm of the Paraguay, which, terminating here, forms an island fourteen leagues in length from north to south: it is the usual channel for canoes during inundations. From the mouth of the Paraguay-mirim the river takes a southerly direction to the mouth of the Taquari, which was navigated annually by flotillas of canoes and other craft, from St. Paul's to Cuiaba, and even as far as the Register of Jaura.

The Embotetieu enters the River Paraguay five leagues below the mouth of the Taquari, and on the same side. It is now called Mondego, and was formerly navigated by the traders from St. Paul's, who entered by the Anhandery-uassu, the south branch of the Pardo. On the north bank of the Mondego, twenty leagues above its mouth, the Spaniards founded the city of Xerez, which the *Paulistas* destroyed. One league below the mouth of the Mondego there are two high insulated mounts, fronting each other on the Paraguay; at the extremity of the southern declivity of the mount on the western side, near the bank of the river, was stationed the garrison of New Coimbra, founded in 1775; it was the last and southernmost Portuguese establishment on the great Paraguay. Eleven leagues to the south of Coimbra, on the west side of the Paraguay, is the mouth of Bahia Negra, a large sheet of water of six leagues in extent, being five leagues long from north to south: it receives the waters of the wide-flooded plains and lands to the south and west of the mountains of Albuquerque. At this bay the Portuguese possessions on both banks of the Paraguay terminated. From thence the river continues to latitude 21 deg., where, on its western bank, is situated a hill known to the Portuguese by the name of Miguel José, which was crowned with a Spanish fort with four pieces of artillery, called *Bourbon*. Three leagues above this the little River Guirino falls into the Paraguay on the eastern side. Nine leagues to the south of the above fort, and in latitude 21 deg. 22 min., are other mountains on both sides the Paraguay, which command this river. Here terminate those extensive inundations to which both banks of the Paraguay are subject; they commence at the mouth of the Jauru, and to this point cover an area of 100 leagues from north to south, and forty in breadth at their highest floods, forming an apparent lake, which geographers of former days, as well as some moderns, have termed the Xarayes. During this inundation, the high mountains and elevated land which it encloses appear like superb islands, and the lower grounds form a labyrinth of lakes, bays, and ponds, many of which remain after the floods have subsided. From this place the banks

downward are in general high and firm, particularly the eastern or Portuguese side. In latitude 22 deg. 5 min., the Galban, a considerable river from the west, empties itself into it.

Between the Paraguay and the Paraná there runs from north to south the Amanbay chain of mountains; they terminate to the south of the River Iguatimy. From these mountains rise all the rivers which, from the Taquari south, flow into the Paraguay, and from the same chain also proceed many other rivers, which, taking a contrary direction, flow into the Paraná; one of them, and the most south, being the Iguatimy, which has its mouth in latitude 23 deg. 47 min., a little above the Seven Falls, or great cataract of the Paraná. This cataract is sublime. It appears from below as six rainbows. The Iguatimy has its sources ten leagues above this place, among high and rugged mountains. The River Xexuy enters the Paraguay on the east side in latitude 24 deg. 11 min., twenty leagues below the Ipane, another small river, called the Ipane-mirim, intervening.

A river of such vast magnitude as the Paraguay, in a temperate and salubrious climate, abounding with fish, bordered by extensive plains and high mountains, intersected by so many rivers, bays, lakes, and forests, must naturally have drawn many of the Indian nations to inhabit its banks; but soon after the settlement of the new continent, the incursions of the Paulistas and Spaniards dispersed and destroyed numerous tribes; the Jesuits removed many thousands to their settlements. Other tribes fled to countries less favoured, but more secure by being farther distant, and more difficult of approach. The emigration of one nation to districts occupied by others, created inveterate and sanguinary wars among them, which soon reduced their numbers. The tribes, or rather remnants of tribes, still settle or wander on the borders of the Upper Paraguay.

From the River Xexuy, downwards, the Paraguay takes its general course south for thirty-two leagues to the city of Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay.

Six leagues below Asuncion, on the west side of the Paraguay, the River Pilcomayo enters that river by its first mouth; its second is fourteen or sixteen leagues lower. In this space some other smaller rivers enter on the east side, and amongst them the Tibiquari, on an arm of which, twenty leagues south-east from Asuncion, is Villa Rica, a town owning much property in cattle on its extensive plains. The River Vermejo, or Bermejo, enters on the west side of the Paraguay, in latitude 26 deg. 45 min. Another great river, the Salado, flows in from the north-west, and joins the Paraguay or Paraná at Espiritu Santo, in latitude 32 deg. 30 min.

The Rio Uruguay rises in the Serra Cubatao, hardly more than twenty miles from the sea, and runs for a considerable distance, first west and then south-west. After its junction with the Ibicuy and Rio Mirinai, which brings down the waters

of the Laguna de Ybera, it turns southwards, and in that direction reaches the Rio de la Plata after a course of about 800 miles. The navigation is interrupted by numerous falls, which are only passable when the waters are at their greatest height during the periodical floods, or by portages in the dry season. Two considerable cataracts occur below 31 deg. south latitude, only a few miles from each other; they are called Salto Grande and Salto Chico. The Salto Grande consists of a rocky reef, running like a wall across the bed of the river; during the floods it is passable in boats, but at low water it may be crossed on horseback. The largest of the affluents of the Rio Uruguay is the Rio Negro, which joins it from the east, and runs upwards of 250 miles. It is navigable for a considerable distance, and traffic is carried on by it with the country near Lake Mirim.

From Cape Santa Maria, on the Atlantic, to the Island of Apipe, on the Paraná, the distance, about 1250 miles, is navigable, without any other reef than the English Bank (*Banco Ingles*), which would cease to be dangerous if the navigation were attended to. In the whole course of the Paraná it is asserted that there is not a rock: its bottom is clay and fine sand; some banks and shallows are here and there met with, but a channel is left at all times for the passage of vessels; and near the banks there is a greater depth than in the middle of the channel. The Paraguay is also asserted to be equally adapted for navigation.

The Pilcomayo and Bermejo, or Vermejo, which flow into the Paraná, both rise in Peru; the first near the city of Potosi, and the second in the vicinity of Tarija. They run at first with considerable impetuosity from the heights whence they descend; but through the flat country, they flow in a tranquil and majestic course. They have numerous windings, on account of the want of fall in the ground of the Gran Chaco through which they run, and which is the most level tract of all South America. The rivers which intersect this vast region are large; they tend to fertilise it, inasmuch as the flatness of the lands facilitates the inundations during the risings of the rivers down to the Paraguay, into which they disembogue themselves, after watering the lower territory.

The Spaniards of the sixteenth century founded a city on the right bank of the Pilcomayo, and called it La Asuncion, to facilitate, by means of the navigation of the river, the transport of the productions and manufactures of that country. That city, as well as another, which they founded on the Paraguay, was destroyed by the Indians, and entirely abandoned by the Spaniards.

It is evident that all productions might be transported down to the Plata from Peru by means of the navigation of Pilcomayo and Bermejo.

The River Salado, which rises in the province of Salta, and unites itself to the Paraná, is another mighty navigable stream. The Gualeguay and the Negro are two more rivers, of the third class, navigable for many leagues.

The La Plata, Paraná, Paraguay, and their affluents, therefore, enjoy all the advantages possessed by the principal rivers of America for inland navigation and trade, and especially for steamboat navigation.

BOOK VII.

STATISTICS OF THE SPANISH REPUBLICS

OF

SOUTH AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

THE SPANISH COLONIAL SYSTEM.

WE have given, as far as can be ascertained, the statistics of Mexico and Central America. We have now to present, in as clear a form as our materials will allow, statistical tables and accounts relative to the trade, navigation, products, and finances of the South American Spanish Republics.

It has been already remarked that the spirit of the Spanish commercial system has descended to the republics. The same jealousy of foreigners and of foreign products is, also, still remarkable. In order to elucidate the commercial and fiscal system of the Spanish American Republics and their progress, we must sketch briefly that by which they were oppressed under Spain, and compare with it the systems, by which they, as separate governments, oppress themselves.

Spain, with absurd regulations, which embarrassed and ruined her colonial commerce, was unable to export, or manufacture the raw produce of her vast colonies,—and would neither permit them to be exported, or manufactured, by the colonists,—nor suffer foreigners to export them, and give in exchange to the colonists those articles that they most wanted. A contraband trade necessarily arose; and this illicit trade reduced the price of the products of those colonies to a wretched rate,—as their sale depended on the uncertain arrival of a greater or lesser number of smuggling vessels: which again, were exposed to the caprices, and interests, of those officers of the government, whose connivance they were obliged to purchase. Spanish colonial agriculture and commerce consequently languished; yet some colossal fortunes were acquired in two or three years by generals, intendants, and commissioners of customs.

Spain, it is true, did not impose any land-tax on her colonies; but, instead, the tithes were shared by the king with the clergy. The Indians alone paid a capitation tax. The revenues of the crown were composed of the local duties, collected on sales in the custom-houses, and on the transfer of lands, &c. There

were also municipal customs, to defray the expenses of the towns, and courts of justice, or *consolados*. The *puertos mayores*, or chief seaport towns, paid both kinds of duties; in the *puertos menores* the municipal duties only were paid. The duties which had been collected in a principal port were returned when the merchandise, on which it was levied, was despatched to a minor port; and *vice versâ*, when an exportation was made from a minor port to a superior one, it was necessary, previously, to pay the duty which should be levied at such principal port, had the merchandise been sent there direct.

After the abolition of exclusive commercial companies, and the odious privileges of Seville and Cadiz, even distinguishing the Spanish American ports into *major* and *minor* ports, was considered a relief, accorded by the cedula of 1778, commonly called the "Free Trade (?) Cedula." The spirit of this regulation was "to establish a *balance* between the most frequented ports, and those which were least so, in order to induce the exporters of the mother country to send consignments to the latter."

The major ports in the captain-generalship of Caraccas, were La Guayra, Porto Cabello, and Maracaybo: Cumana, Barcelona, the Island of Margarita, and the Orinoco were the minor points. Port of Spain, in Trinidad, was a free port for a limited time; that is, all nations were permitted to trade there: this privilege, granted to that colony in 1783, had, in 1797, created a great increase of population and prosperity, which it could not otherwise have attained in a whole century.

The edict of the 28th of February, 1784, established distinctions between the duties which the various commodities should pay on importation from Spain into the colonies; first, free goods, or productions of the soil and manufactures of Spain; the quota of duties on importation we have enumerated, amounted to ten per cent, and only affected the merchandise proceeding from the soil and manufactures of Spain; such goods were termed free articles. There was, secondly, another tariff for the produce of foreign countries manufactured in Spain, these were called contributable articles, and which paid twelve and a half per cent. Thirdly, goods purely foreign paid only seven per cent on importation at American ports; but as they had paid fifteen per cent on entering Spain, and seven on departure for America, without reckoning the duties we have enumerated, and those of *internacion*, *indulto*, &c., these duties amounted to more than forty-three per cent on foreign merchandise.

Taxation.—The *bulls*, whose annual sale was one of the branches of the revenue of the crown and of the clergy, stand first.

Then come the *taxes* of *alcavala*, *almojarifazgo*, *armada* and *armadilla*, of *internacion*, *indulto*, *corso*, *aprovechamientos*; the *licences* of *pulperias* or *taverns*, on the *taxa* and the *guarapo*, duties of *aduanas*, *laguna*, *composition* for lands, on letting lands, of lances, of the half annatas; in some provinces, a part of the

tithes, in others, *the whole tithe*; the *ecclesiastical mesadas*, and *royal ninths*, the tax levied on the *sale or change of public employments*, and that *on the profits on annual income of those places or employments*; the *tribute or capitation tax* on the Indians; *stamped paper*, the *right of passage*, the *fifths of mines*, the *hospitalities*, the *salt-works*, *confiscations*, *restitutions*, *vacant successions*, *vacant majorities and minorities*, the *exclusive sale of tobacco*, *cock-fightings*, *passage-boats on the river Apure*; this last tax was peculiar to the government of Caraccas.

Then follow the municipal duties of *consulado* and *avaria*, of *cabildo*, and official executor.

	Dollars.
1st. Alcavala de la Mar. This duty was in the captain-generalship of Venezuela, four per cent* on all kinds of merchandise, indiscriminately, which entered the ports. It was paid on entry, and not on the departure of merchandise. At Carthagena de las Indias, it was two per cent; at Guayaquil, three; at Lima, six; and at Vera Cruz, four. M. Depons says that it produced in the provinces of Venezuela, in 1793, 150,862 dollars; in 1794, 151,408 dollars; in 1795, 105,251 dollars; in 1796, 130,644 dollars; and in 1797, only 10,248 dollars; because, according to that writer, maritime commerce was in the last-named year almost entirely suspended. The true cause of the diminution of this duty was from the English having taken possession of Trinidad in the commencement of 1797, that island became the staple of almost all the trade of Venezuela; a commerce which was carried on with as little concealment as if Spain and Great Britain had been in the most strict alliance. Before the English had possessed themselves of all the commerce of the country it produced annually.	150,000
2nd. Duty of Almoxarifazgo. It was levied also on all that was imported and exported; it had been fixed at fifteen per cent on all that was imported from Spain at the time of the discovery of America. But it was reduced about a century ago to three per cent on Spanish merchandise, and fixed at seven per cent on foreign merchandise, imported in Spanish ships. The Almoxarifazgo, on exportation, is two per cent on home produce, and three on foreign. Its usual annual produce in the captain-generalship of Caraccas was	200,000
3rd. The duty of Armada and Armadilla, or tax for the royal navy and the flotilla. This tax was established for aiding the expenses of the navy, when it was occupied in protecting the colonies against pirates; and though those coasts have not been infested for more than a century, the duty continues to be levied; it is two per cent, and rendered annually on an average from	80,000 to 90,000
4th. The duty of Corso was instituted for paying the maintenance of <i>guarda-costas</i> (revenue cruisers), for preventing contraband trade: it was three per cent, and rendered	150,000
Total of the royal duties on the imports and exports of merchandise	590,000

* The Alcavala de la Mar is the offspring of the Alcavala de Tierra. The Cortes had granted to the kings of Spain a tax on transfers and sales, to assist them to maintain the war against the Moors; this tax was called Alcavala: those monarchs afterwards established this impost in their possessions in America towards the end of the sixteenth century. It was only two per cent at first, but it was raised to five per cent towards the middle of last century. It was levied on every thing that was sold, moveable or immovable. All the productions of the soil, as well as those of industry, eggs, pulse, forage, &c., &c., paid the Alcavala on entering the towns. Shopkeepers paid this tax by subscription. This would have produced enormous sums, if in the Spanish possessions there had been more activity in commercial affairs and less contraband trade. The Alcavala de Tierra produced to the revenue, on an average, in the provinces of Venezuela, 400,000 hard dollars.

	Dollars.
Brought forward	590,000
I shall not particularise the proceeds of the other royal duties and imposts paid in the interior of the country, and enumerated in another chapter, and which amounted to, including the bulls*	1,210,000
Total amount of the royal duties and imposts in the general government of Venezuela, not including the expenses of government and of collection	1,800,000

Civic Duties.

The united duties of Consulado and Average, were levied in the maritime custom-houses, and paid to the cashier of the consulado or chamber of commerce, to bear the expenses of that court; it was one per cent on all that was exported to Spain or to the other Spanish colonies, and three per cent on all that was exported to foreign colonies, or which came from them. Beasts of burden were subject to a particular tariff. Horses and mules exported paid one dollar each; oxen one per cent according to the valuation made of them by the custom-house officers. New negroes brought by the British contractors, were exempted from all duties: they produced about

New negroes brought by the British contractors, were exempted from all duties: they produced about	100,000
The duty of fiel executor	70,000
That of the cabildo	80,000
Total of the civic duties	250,000

All those royal and munificent duties, which amounted, as specified, to 2,050,000 dollars, were not sufficient for paying the expenses of government in the captain-generalship of Venezuela. The intendant received annually about 1,200,000 dollars from the treasuries of Mexico and *the kingdom of New Granada*. Thus the expenses of that government amounted annually to nearly 750,000*l.*; for of all the imposts levied in that country not a farthing passed into the royal treasury of Spain. Such was the fiscal and commercial policy, of which the Spanish republics have inherited much of the spirit in their attempts at legislation.

CHAPTER II.

STATISTICS OF NEW GRANADA.

EXCEPTING as far as stated in the accounts hereafter of the exports of the precious metals, we have no details on which we can place any reliance of the former trade of New Granada and Spain. As far as manufactures were concerned, a contraband trade of great extent was carried on from the British colonies.

* The sale of bulls and indulgences amounted annually on an average in the provinces of Venezuela, to 180,000 dollars; of which one third belonged to the crown, and the other two-thirds to the clergy.

Treaties of reciprocity have been negotiated with Colombia ; which are still binding on New Granada, Great Britain, the United States, &c. The commercial tariffs and regulations have undergone various alterations.

REVENUE.

COMPARATIVE View of the Revenue of New Granada, in the Years 1844 and 1845, showing the Increase or Decrease thereof.

ARTICLES.	1843 and 1844.		1844 and 1845.		Increase.		Decrease.	
	dlrs.	cts.	dlrs.	cts.	dlrs.	cts.	dlrs.	cts.
Mint.....	2,102,134	4½	1,926,698	3½			175,436	0½
Fifths of gold and melting.....	51,008	7½	48,308	1½			2,700	6½
Customs	1,124,345	4½	851,165	6½			273,179	6
Tobacco.....	820,438	4½	890,264	3	69,825	6½		
Salt.....	535,547	6½	548,036	5	12,488	6½		
Spirits	180,359	1½	174,323	6½			6,035	2½
Post-office.....	80,462	3½	76,418	2½			4,044	1
Stamps.....	70,480	6½	79,813	4½	5,332	6½		
Tithes.....	36,978	6½	23,592	5½			13,386	1½
Mortgages, &c.	14,661	4	18,746	7½	4,085	3½		
Deeds and Patents	842	4½	3,058	0	2215	3½		
Exports of concentrated mineral	640	0½	712	6	72	5½		
Fines.....	280	2½	1,031	2	750	7½		
Sale of lime	616	4½	623	2	6	5½		
Sundries.....	91,765	6	73,383	6			18,382	0
Total Income.....	5,114,563	3½	4,716,177	6½	94,778	5	493,164	2
					Deduct increase		94,778	5
					Decrease on the year.....		398,385	5

TARIFF DUTIES.

By the last decree or law which we possess, dated Bogata, the 24th of May, the duties on importation of merchandise by foreign vessels were based on the rate of *thirty per cent ad valorem*.

The duties on merchandise imported by national vessels, or vessels belonging to countries with which there are treaties of reciprocity, at the rate of twenty-five per cent *ad valorem*.

The produce of Venezuela and Lima, are treated much the same as New Granada products.

There is, however, a long tariff of specific rates, based upon, but which may add, or diminish, the general rates of twenty-five and thirty per cent.

ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY.

The following articles, unless specially rated in the present tariff, shall be admitted free of duty: viz., gold, silver, platina in powder, bullion, and coin; machines and instruments for agricultural purposes, as, machines for cleaning, cotton-mills, sugar-mills and sawing-mills, also all kinds of machinery and implements for the use of the mines; fire and all other engines; steam vessels; all machinery, &c., for the purpose of building and repairing houses, &c., and for clearing out harbours, docks, canals, and for spinning and weaving, and also all others that may be generally applicable to arts and manufactures; beaver and nutria skins; bee-hives; surgical instruments, and all kinds of preparations, and books, plates, &c., fit for medical science; lithographic types, &c.; books, bound and unbound, pamphlets, &c.; maps, paintings, statues, busts, medals, and collections of antiquities; domestic animals; seeds and plants for agriculture and garden purposes.

No duty shall be charged on merino wool, which may be imported previous to the 1st of January, 1858, nor upon tiles, &c., stone, bricks, and lime, planks and boardings, and sawn timber, fit for building, which may be entered at the Port of Rio Hacha, previous to the 31st of May, 1846, nor upon similar building materials, imported at the Port of Chagres, entered thereat previous to the 17th of March, 1850.

Carriages, and all other articles, entered for the use of foreign diplomatic agents, consuls, vice-consuls, &c., are exempt from the payment of import duties.

The importation of all descriptions of books, prints, &c. &c., which may be contrary to religion, or offensive to morals and decency, and injurious to the public good, is most strictly prohibited. But under this head are not included works and prints, &c., proper for anatomical study or for the fine arts.

The prohibition to import anise, and essences made from it, sugar, raw, &c., honey and molasses, coffee, cocoa, and indigo, does not apply to the ports in the provinces of Panama and Veraguas, specially legalised for importation. The forenamed articles may be there imported for consumption within those provinces—transit through the ports of Panama, Chagres, and Portobello—or for deposit at Panama or Portobello, subject always to the customary regulations affecting such transactions.

The prohibition to import cacao does not extend to the port of Tumaco; it may be there entered for consumption, within either that district or that of Barbacoas, paying an import duty of two *pesos* upon each quintal.

Should prohibited merchandise or goods be brought into any port within the republic, either in a national or foreign vessel, it shall be subjected to inspection by two competent authorities; the one named by the customs and the other by the captain or consignee of the vessel, and if the quantity of such goods shall be found to be *double* that which the above-named parties may consider as necessary for the use of the crew during the ship's passage, any quantity exceeding such requisite allowance shall be forfeited, and the captain shall be mulcted in a penalty of from 200 to 1000 *pesos*.

If the administrator of the customs shall suspect that the goods have been put down in the invoice at less than the true value in the port whence they were exported, he shall cause them to be valued at the prices which they would bear at the place whence they came, at the time of exportation; and if the value thus assessed should exceed the value in the invoice by twenty per cent, then fifty per cent shall be put upon the estimated value; and the duties shall be calculated and collected thereon: provided, however, when the estimated value as above shall not exceed the invoice value by twenty per cent, then the estimated value shall be considered the true value.

Monies.—Accounts are kept in pesos or dollars, of eight reals or twelve and a half cents; medias, or six and a fourth cents; and cuartillas or three and one-eighth cents. The dollar is also divided into halves and quarters.

Weights and Measures.—These are the same as those used in Spain.

The libra contains sixteen onza or ounces.

The quintal of 4 arrobas, 100 libras, which are equal to 101 44-100th lbs. avoirdupois.

Dry Measure.—The cahiz is equal to 12 fanegas; 1 fanega is equal to 12 celemines.

The celemine is subdivided into $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, &c. The fanega measures 3439 cubic inches English, and is equal to 1.599 bushels.

Liquid Measure.—1 moyo of wine contains 16 arrobas; 1 arroba contains 8 azumbras; 1 azumbra contains 32 cuartillas.

The arroba of oil contains 3.43 English gallons; the arroba of wine contains 4.245 English gallons.

Long Measure.—The foot is divided into 12 pulgadas = 11,128 English inches.

The palmo is equal to 9 „ = $8\frac{1}{3}$ „

The vara 4 palmos = 33,384 „

DECREE of the 29th of April, 1844, respecting the exportation of the produce and manufactures of New Granada and loading of ships, &c.

ARTICLE I.—All the natural and manufactured products of New Granada may be ex-

ported free, and be conducted through all the ports maritime, inland, or fluvial, whether they be licensed for importation or only for exportation, without paying any national impost: Gold and silver in trinkets, bars or dust, or in whatever other natural form they may be extracted from the mines, even though they be mixed with some other extraneous matters, are alone excepted.

ARTICLE II.—The prohibition of the exportation of the precious metals, spoken of in the former article, does not extend to the port of Panama and Veraguas, as they may be freely exported from them, whether the product of mines which are worked there or importations for circulation, for transit or deposit.

ARTICLE III.—Foreign goods and merchandise which may be imported for consumption, and upon which the fiscal dues have been payed, or properly secured, may be re-exported without paying any export duty whatever.

ARTICLE IV.—Before a vessel can commence to load, the express permission of the custom house is required, which shall be granted for the term which the chief officers thereof may think convenient.

ARTICLE V.—The permission being given, a new search visit shall be made, to ascertain if the vessel be in ballast, or if she only contain the goods, which at the time of the entry-visit the captain declared destined to other ports, or whether there be a perceptible diminution of the stores or provisions for the crew, or in the tackle, sails, and other articles of the vessel's stock.

ARTICLE VI.—The loading of every vessel shall be attended and inspected by the custom-house officers.

ARTICLE VII.—Natural or manufactured articles of the country cannot be exported, nor can foreign goods, which have been imported, be re-exported, without the knowledge and permission of the custom-house. For this purpose there shall be presented two *policies* or invoices of equal value, expressing in a detailed manner the goods intended to be exported, and the foreign port to which they are bound. These invoices must be signed by the exporter. The custom-house shall retain one, and on the other shall be put the licence as soon as the effects have been examined.

ARTICLE VIII.—A permit is also requisite from the custom-houses in order to ship stones for ballast, and pearl oyster shells from the islands of Panama and Veraguas in the Pacific Ocean.

ARTICLE IX.—Natural or manufactured goods of the country, which are to be exported, must be examined before they are shipped by the heads of the custom-house, or by the officers of the coast-guard.

ARTICLE X.—In order to examine foreign merchandise about to be re-exported, it is strictly required that the goods be conveyed to the warehouses of the custom-house, unless they are inflammable articles, or such as can be so easily inspected as not to require a minute examination, but one which may be made without the said warehouses.

ARTICLE XI.—The personal effects, which have to be embarked, as well as the stores, provisions, and other articles carried on board for consumption during the voyage, shall also be examined and inspected by the guard, in order to prevent the shipment for a foreign country of precious metals, in contravention to the prohibition.

ARTICLE XII.—Every vessel, as well national as foreign, which desires to go to load national effects or produce, at a port licensed only for exportation, must previously obtain a licence from the collector of customs of any one of the ports licensed for importation, but which cannot be granted without the consent of the first political authority of the place.

ARTICLE XIII.—Licence shall not be granted to any foreign vessel, which may have on board or be destined to receive foreign goods, whether the import duties have been paid upon them or not, but it shall be conceded to such as be in ballast or have on board national effects for exportation, and desire to proceed to the above-mentioned ports to complete their cargoes.

ARTICLE XIV.—Licence shall be granted to national vessels whether they be in ballast, carry national effects for exportation or consumption, or foreign goods to be dis-

charged in the port of exportation, provided always that the import duties thereon have been paid or duly secured.

ARTICLE XV.—Upon the arrival of a national or foreign vessel in the ports, authorised only for exportation, that have a permit to export effects of the country, the chief of the coast-guard shall visit the said vessel in the act of entering, shall see if she is in ballast or laden. In the latter case he shall require the register as also the manifests of invoices, which ought to bear the pass of the controller of the custom-house who gave the licence. If the effects are destined for the same port, which can only happen when the vessel is a national one, they shall be disembarked and examined with the formalities prescribed in regard to ports of importation. If they are destined to be exported to foreign countries, they shall be examined abroad, and compared with the registers, manifests, or invoices.

ARTICLE XVI.—The exportation of national effects and produce through the ports licensed only for exportation, shall be carried into effect with the same formalities and according to the rules established in the present law for the exportation of the same effects through the ports licensed for importation and exportation.

ARTICLE XVII.—In the maritime ports of import and export, the entrance of vessels which come with the view to complete their cargo, and have on board foreign goods, the importation of which is prohibited, shall be permitted; they must present the manifests and invoices of the said goods.

ARTICLE XVIII.—The loading of a vessel being completed, and the vessel being duly despatched by the custom house, and by the captain of the port where there exists one, it must sail immediately, and not be allowed to anchor again and remain in the port or its neighbourhood unless on account of stress of weather, or other urgent and unforeseen necessity.

ARTICLE XIX.—A report shall be drawn up of the despatch of each vessel, which shall contain, first, information of the name of the vessel and of the nation to which it belongs, the name of the captain who commands it, the number of tons measurement, and the port to which it proceeds; second, the account of the search visit; third, of the permission to load; fourth, of the registers or invoices of the embarked effects, which remain in the custom-house; and fifth, and lastly, of that in which any thing may have been declared contraband, if any such there be.

ARTICLE XX.—The precious metals, the exportation of which is prohibited, which may have been embarked, may be in the act of shipment, or on which an attempt to embark or convey may be made, and all the effects and merchandise which may have been embarked, in the act of being embarked, or to embark or convey which an attempt may be made, without permission from the custom-house, or in places not appointed for that purpose, or at hours different from those specified for shipments, shall incur the penalty of forfeiture, as well as the beasts of burden, carriages, or vessels employed in the commission of or attempt at fraud.

ARTICLE XXI.—The vessel shall incur forfeiture also when her master, or mate supplying his place, receives on board any quantity of precious metals, the exportation of which is prohibited.

ARTICLE XXII.—*When, by the visits mentioned in the fifteenth article, a foreign vessel shall be found to contain merchandise of foreign production, which exceeds in amount those provisions and other articles which are considered necessary for the vessel's stock and the consumption of the crew, the vessel and all that belongs to it shall incur the penalty of confiscation.*

ARTICLE XXIII.—If, on the visit at sailing, the said necessary effects should be found to have diminished, the captain shall be liable to the following penalties: if the decrease amount to a hundred dollars, value of the effects at the current price in the town, he shall pay a fine of fifty dollars; if the increase be from one hundred up to five hundred dollars, the fine shall be two hundred dollars; and from five hundred dollars and upwards, the vessel and every thing that belongs to it shall be confiscated.

DECREE.

Of Ports qualified for Import and Export Traffic.—The ports qualified for import and export trade in the Atlantic Ocean, are declared to be those of Rio Hacha, Santa Martha, and Carthagena, in the provinces so called ; as are also those of Portobello and Chagres, in the province of Panama, and that of Las Bocas del Toro in that of Veraguas. In the Pacific Ocean, that of Tumaco in the province of Pasto ; those of Buenaventura and Panama in the provinces of their names ; and those of Montijo and Bocachica in the province of Veraguas.

The Port of Arauca and that of the Uceta on the rivers of these names in the province of Casanare, are declared the fluvial ports qualified for import and export trade ; and the inland ports qualified for the same purposes, are that of Cucuta in the province of Pamplona, and that of Tuquerres in that of Pasto.

Of Ports qualified for Export Trade only.—The Ports of Sabanilla and Zapote in the province of Carthagena, are declared ports qualified for export trade only.

Of Warehousing Ports.—The Ports of Carthagena, Santa Martha, Rio Hacha, and Portobello in the Atlantic Ocean ; and that of Panama in the Pacific, are declared to be warehousing ports.

Of Ports through which a Transit Trade can be carried on.—The transit trade can be carried on through the ports of Panama, Portobello, and Chagres.

Of Free Ports.—In the Pacific Ocean, the ports of Buenaventura and Tumaco are free ports ; the former until the year 1879, the latter until 1861.

Every class of national and foreign vessels, can freely enter and leave the free ports, without paying port dues, or import, or other national duties.

[The executive power can except, in case of necessity, from the general disposition of this article, vessels of nations at war with New Granada.]

The exemption from duties mentioned in the two anteceding articles, only comprises merchandise which may be consumed in the town of Buenaventura, or the Island of Tumaco ; and goods, which leave the said town or island for another or other places of the republic, by land, by river, or by sea, are subject to the payment of national duties.

The following legislative dispositions remain subsisting, viz., the decree of the 11th of June, 1842, authorising the executive power to open the port of San Buenaventura on the River Zulia, and declare that of Cucuta a warehousing port ; the decree of the 1st of July of the same year, authorising the executive power to open for import trade the port of Sabanilla in the province of Carthagena.

The Port of Iscuandé in the province of Buenaventura, shall remain closed until the completion of the road of the province of Popayan to the margins of the River Iscuandé, the port being only open for the salt and provision trade necessary for the consumption of the inhabitants of the cantons of Iscuandé, Micai, and Barbacoas.

Given at Bogota on the 22nd of March, 1844.

Tonnage Duties.—By the levy of the 29th of March, 1846, the duties on ships, viz., entrance, tonnage, anchorage, and pilot dues, to be collected under one head, to be denominated tonnage duty.—(See Scale hereafter.)

The Granadian ton shall consist of twenty quintals of about 103 lbs. avoirdupois.

DECREE, authorising the introduction of Foreign Effects by the Port of Chagres, with direction to the Custom-house of Panama, with a view to be imported through the latter.

I, PEDRO ALCANTARA HERRAN, President of the Republic, Decree.

I. The introduction by the Port of Chagres of foreign effects intended to be imported through the custom-house of Panama, shall continue to be permitted.

II. The manifest of foreign effects introduced by Chagres to be imported through

the custom-house of Panama, shall be presented within the term, and with formalities prescribed in the 23rd Article of the Law of the 5th of June of this year.

III. In the said manifesto, the name of the person to whom the effects are addressed in Panama, to be delivered to the custom-house, and who is to take the other steps relative to the importation, shall be stated.

IV. After the delivery of the manifest, the heads of the custom-house of Chagres shall permit the effects to be trans-shipped from the vessel in which they were brought, to those which are to convey them by the River "Gorgona" or "Cruces," or to be landed and conveyed to the warehouses of the custom-house, if the trans-shipment could not be effected, or if the party interested desire it.

V. In order to carry into effect the trans-shipment, or the landing of the packages, one of the two chiefs of the custom-house shall compare them with the manifest as respects their kind, numbers, and marks, and shall seal them with the custom-house seal, kept for that purpose, and which shall bear the inscription "Importation for Panama."

VI. It shall not be necessary to open the packages in order to compare them with the manifest, which shall only be done with the object stated in the foregoing Article.

VII. The packages shall be conveyed from Chagres to Panama, with a permit issued by the Chagres custom-house; to obtain which the party interested shall present a duplicate application to the heads thereof, for the said permit, the original being drawn out on a stamp, and the duplicate on common paper.

VIII. The application for the permit shall be the same in every respect as the original manifest, setting forth the packages, their nature, numbers, marks, and contents of each, together with the declaration that they are directed to Panama, to be imported through the custom-house of that port, and the name of the owner or consignee in that city.

IX. The heads of the Chagres custom-house shall compare the original and duplicate application for the permit with the manifest, and if found correct, shall annex the corresponding licence, together with the declaration that the effects have not paid import duties, and of the term within which they must be presented in the custom-house of Panama.

X. The licence being issued, and copy of it made upon the duplicate which is to remain in the custom-house, with the documents serving as vouchers of its accounts, the original shall be delivered to the party interested, that it may accompany the effects.

XI. Immediately after issuing the permit, the comptroller at Chagres shall remit to the comptroller of Panama the original manifest.

XII. The comptroller at Panama shall duly inform the comptroller at Chagres of the receipt of the manifest, as also of that of the permit, and of the effects which accompany it.

XIII. The bales shall on no account be opened in their passage from Chagres to Panama.

XIV. Although, in order to proceed to the examination of the packages of a manifest, the arrival of all those belonging to the same permit or manifest is to be waited for, this does not hinder the examination of such packages as may be observed to have received damage in the transit.

XV. In the receipt of the packages, examination of the effects, and calculation, payment, or security, for the import duties, the Panama custom-house shall proceed in conformity with the Law upon the subject, and the Decree published yesterday for carrying the same into effect.

XVI. Effects introduced by Chagres, with a view to be imported in Panama, cannot, after having been declared as such, be left in bond, nor re-exported without paying the import duty.

Given at Bogota, on the 4th of November, 1844.

RETURN of Tonnage Dues, including Fees, and other Charges imposed on Shipping at the Ports of New Granada.

		s. d.	OBSERVATIONS.
Port Dues on national or British vessels.	{ Under 100 tons	3 0 per ton.	National coasting vessels, vessels of war, packets, post-office vessels (national or foreign) pay no tonnage dues. No vouchers are given. Tonnage dues are only paid at the first port of arrival; if the vessel touches at any other port of New Granada, no further tonnage is required.
	{ Over „ the first 100 tons.....	3 0 „	
	The balance.....	1 6 „	
Port Dues on Foreign vessels.	{ Under 100 tons	5 6 „	These regulations are new, and commence on the 1st January, 1845.
	{ Over „ the first 100 tons.....	5 6 „	
	The balance.....	2 0 „	
Captain of ports' fees.	{ Six dollars or 24s. if under 100 tons. Eight dollars or 32s. if over ditto. One dollar or 4s. for office expences. Twelve reals or 6s. stamp for roll.		
Whalers	{ Whalers of all nations entering to refresh, pay one real, or 6d. per ton.		

CHAPTER III.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF NEW GRANADA.

THE contraband trade interferes so seriously with official statements, that they are much under the actual amount. We have received a report published in the bulletin of the Minister of Commerce of France, of which the following is a condensed translation:—

Money, 25 francs = 1*l.* sterling.

According to local information obtained by the French consuls, the average annual value of the foreign trade of New Granada is estimated at 40,000,000 francs.

Imports.—The imports in 1840 scarcely exceeded 17,000,000 francs; in 1843 they rose to 23,000,000 francs; in 1844 they fell to 22,000,000 francs.

Exports.—In 1843 the exports amounted to 16,000,000 francs; in 1844 they fell to 14,000,000 francs.

Customs' Duties.—Of the 22,000,000 francs value of merchandise entered for consumption in 1844, the customs duties' amounted to 5,770,000 francs, or more than twenty per cent on the official value.

Trading Countries.—The countries which contributed mostly to the trade of New Granada, are Jamaica and Liverpool, to the extent of 13,000,000 francs; France, 3,769,000 francs; United States, 1,000,000 francs; Island of Curaçao, 820,000 francs; Spain, 610,000 francs; Venezuela and Peru, each about 750,000 francs.

English Trade.—The English imports, forming three-fifths of the whole, were principally composed of cheap *cloths* and *stuffs* of all kinds, and which no country can compete with in price; the bad and discoloured *cottons* of Switzerland and Germany are those which seem more particularly to menace similar English articles in the Granadian market.

United States Trade.—The importation from the United States diminish yearly; they are principally made up of *flour*, *salt goods*, *drugs*, and imitations of European goods.

Spanish Trade.—Spain expedites to New Granada, either direct or indirect by the way of the Island of St. Thomas, *raisins*, *wines* of Catalonia, *Sauhucar*, and of Malaga; common *oil* and rough Biscay *iron*, which latter the English have imitated, and are in a fair way to supplant.

French Trade.—The trade of France with New Granada appears to have greatly fluctuated. During the years 1837 to 1840, the French imports amounted to an annual average of about 1,135,000 francs; during the political disturbances which agitated that country, *nil*; in 1843-44, they were estimated at 3,000,000 francs. Havre de Grace alone sent to the New Granadian market manufactured goods to the amount of 3,000,000 francs.

The French *cloths, velvets, paper, the ribands* of St. Etienne, and particularly *Parisian goods*, find an advantageous market. The fine superior French *silks* are too expensive to find buyers as yet; the same is also the case with the fine *muslins* of Mulhouse and French *indianas*.

French *wines* and *brandy*, upon which there is a high duty, have but a limited sale; the greater part of the population of New Granada are too poor to purchase even the cheap wines of Spain: they drink in general nothing but water.

PORT OF CARTHAGENA.—The periodical returns for the Port of Carthagen, prior to 1844, were very indifferent and incomplete; we can therefore only give a *resumé* for the last two years (1843 and 1844).

This is one of the finest harbours in the world; it will float, secured from all danger, a whole fleet, and is the only port on the coast of Granada fit for the repair of vessels.

General Navigation.—The navigation, not including the coasting trade, amounted to eighty-six vessels, measuring 12,605 tons in the year 1843, and to eighty vessels and 12,950 tons in 1844.

English Tonnage.—The amount of English tonnage trading to this port for the year 1844, was 5404 tons, the United States 3432 tons, and France 3102 tons. Other countries almost *nil*.

Trade.—The total value of the interchanges of merchandise in the year 1843, are valued at 10,369,000 francs, of which goods to the amount of 3,731,000 francs were imported, and 6,638,000 francs were exported. In the year 1844, they only amounted to 9,020,000 francs, of which the imports were estimated at 3,017,000 francs, and the exports at 6,013,000 francs. Carthagen, enjoyed one-fourth part of the total commercial operations of the country in 1844.

Imports—English Trade.—This trade received from England and its dependencies to the value of 1,740,000 francs of *tissues* and *manufactured articles*.

French Trade.—From France 654,000 francs, composed of *painted cloths, ordinary cloths, silks, linen, &c.*

United States Trade.—And from the United States 473,000 francs, chiefly *flour* and other kinds of *provisions*.

Exports to England.—The exports from this port, principally made to England, amounted to 5,176,000 francs of *specie* (doubloons), and small quantities of *platinum, dibidivi, tobacco, Indian corn, and beasts of burden*.

To France.—The exports to France limited themselves to 335,000 francs.

United States.—And those to the United States to about the same value, composed principally of *specie, raw and cured hides, and a few parcels of tortoise-shell*.

Canal.—To give greater vigour to its trade, a canal is being re-opened, which formerly communicated with the interior, and joined the River Magdalen to the sea. It will commence at Barranca, about six myriameters (seventy-two miles) above the mouth of the Magdalen, and in the centre of a country producing *sugar, hides, cacao, dyewoods, &c.* The completion of this canal will have the effect, it is hoped of drawing out the produce of New Granada and of diminishing the expense of transport.

DIRECT TRADE OF FRANCE WITH NEW GRANADA. 1837 to 1844.

YEARS.	Navigation entered and departed.		General Trade.			Special Trade.		
			Imports.	Exports.	TOTAL.	Imports.	Exports.	TOTAL.
	Vessels.	Tons.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
1837.....	No. 15	No. 3,222	550,000	439,000	989,000	227,000	361,000	588,000
1838.....	8	1,522	495,000	435,000	930,000	334,000	383,000	717,000
1839.....	15	2,684	526,000	167,000	693,000	416,000	92,000	508,000
1840.....	30	5,555	686,000	640,000	1,326,000	299,000	312,000	611,000
1841.....	28	5,213	1,039,000	561,000	1,600,000	557,000	295,000	852,000
1842.....	21	3,865	898,000	1,413,000	2,311,000	543,000	1,061,000	1,604,000
1843.....	23	3,916	1,532,000	2,916,000	4,448,000	782,000	1,919,000	2,701,000
1844.....	30	5,259	1,319,000	3,127,000	4,446,000	1,096,000	1,919,000	3,015,000

From the above table we see that from 1840 the French trade with New Granada has rapidly increased. The trade is almost exclusively carried on under the French flag.

Exports to France.—The exports from this country to France in 1844 were composed of *mother-of-pearl, raw hides, dyewoods, tortoise-shell, cotton wool, cigars, dibidivi, and objects of natural history, &c.*

Imports from France.—Among the French exports to New Granada the *tissues* were valued at 1,712,000 francs, of which the French manufactured 751,000 francs, the remainder being foreign; also *paper, books, and engravings* to the extent of 209,000 francs, *perfumery*, 180,000 francs; *pottery ware*, 93,000 francs; *wines and brandy*, 83,000 francs.

Tissues (woven goods) as quoted above, form a large portion of the French envoys to New Granada, the following table gives the annual value exported from France during the last eight years.

YEARS.	FRENCH WOVEN GOODS.				
	Of silk.	Of wool.	Of cotton.	Of flax and of hemp.	TOTAL.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
1837.....	85,000	10,000	6,000	52,000	153,000
1838.....	156,000	15,000	120	21,000	192,120
1839.....	65,000	"	"	1,300	66,300
1840.....	56,000	59,000	200	9,000	124,200
1841.....	31,000	5,000	53,000	2,000	91,000
1842.....	177,000	134,000	30,000	29,000	370,000
1843.....	372,000	274,000	124,000	51,000	821,000
1844.....	354,000	244,000	112,000	41,000	751,000

Mode of Trading.—To be successful in the trade of New Granada, the importers must vary their goods according to the patterns and samples sent them. To attempt to introduce a novel article of fashion would be futile; there are certain colours and patterns which in that country have become *hereditary*, and no fashion could change this national usage. Also our merchants must strictly confine themselves to the customary length and breadth in a piece of *stuff*, such is the force of habit with the natives, that they cannot be brought to understand that the larger the size and the better the quality of a *piece* of manufactured *stuff*, the greater is its price.

Payments.—There is also another very important obstacle which this trade meets with—the European *manufacturers* are too sanguine in selling their goods for ready money; when a vessel arrives, if it cannot, after disposing of its cargo, immediately procure one in return, it is forced to accept *coined gold*, which is very expensive, valuing sometimes twenty per cent. The above are facts we would strongly recommend to the serious attention of merchants trading to New Granada.

Packing Goods.—The trade of Bogota, and of the interior, complains of the *French* mode of packing their goods. On this head the English are thoroughly expert, knowing that the goods are transported on *mules*, they pack their merchandises in suitable sizes; whereas in France, the bales are made up to an impracticable bulk.

Indianas.—The size of the French *indianas* also displease the native merchants as being too large; they should imitate the English size, which is twenty-eight yards long, and never exceeds three-quarters of a yard in breadth.

Real and Paste Jewellery are greatly demanded, as also articles of *fashion*, but they must all be of a low price and in small parcels; in the latter articles, as before said, the taste and caprice of the inhabitants must be consulted.

Payments.—We cannot too strongly impress upon the attention of our merchants the absolute necessity of giving credit for merchandise sold, for six, twelve, and eighteen months together, otherwise the Granadian merchant, trading to Europe, who follows this system (it being, indeed, the custom of the country) will eventually succeed in supplanting the European trader. Houses having formed alliances with Granadian ones, and of necessity following this course, are in a prosperous condition.

Wages.—At Bogota, and in the interior, the number of European artisans are daily increasing, and good conduct and attention to their business would make them successful, but the wages being unfortunately high, lead them too often to idleness and dissipation.

PANAMA—STATE OF TRADE IN MARCH, 1845.

Trade.—The trade of this port with Europe is of very little importance. Even the English flag is seen but rarely.

Coasting Navigation.—This limited trade is carried on by means of the coasting-trade, with Callao, Guaquil, and other intermediate ports at Peru.

Products.—The products of the country are very limited, the most important, viz., *gold-dust* and *pearls*, are exported *viâ* Chagres, and in general without any official declaration, which prevents us from valuing this branch of the trade. The articles sent to Europe from Panama, are *hides* and *coffee*, generally of foreign origin, and are brought *viâ* the coasting-trade, from Central America.

Mother-of-pearl and Unmanufactured Shells.—A vessel from Bordeaux is at this moment (March, 1845) taking in a cargo of shells, in the Archipelago of the Pearl Islands, destined for Havre.

STEAM NAVIGATION BETWEEN PANAMA AND VALPARAISO—MAILS CROSSING BETWEEN THE TWO SEAS.

Navigation.—A contract has been concluded between her Britannic Majesty's government and the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, for the conveyance of mails on the western coast of South America between Valparaiso and Panama. This is an important arrangement, as the mails, being taken across the isthmus to Chagres, can be regularly brought by the vessels of the West India Royal Mail Company to this country, instead of performing the long circuitous route by Cape Horn.

IMPORTS and Exports of the Republic of New Granada from 1842 to 1845.

ARTICLES.	1842	1843	1844	1845
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Imports	2,330,432	4,279,110	4,102,584	3,105,786
Exports	1,503,673	2,983,709	2,625,075	2,337,600
Excess of declared imports. Over declared exports	826,759	1,295,401	1,477,409	768,186
Amount exported in specie of the above exports.....	996,742		1,481,236	1,295,280
Amount exported in produce of the country	506,931		1,143,849	1,042,320

EXP ORTS of New Granada in 1844 and 1845.

ARTICLES.	1843 and 1844.		1844 and 1845.		Increase.		Decrease.	
	dls.	cts.	dls.	cts.	dls.	cts.	dls.	cts.
Gold coin.....	1,398,982	12½	1,245,391	0			153,591	12½
Silver do.....	82,254	68½	49,889	3			32,365	68½
Coffee—1844, 22,852 qtls.; 1845, 23,904 qtls	86,910	31½	105,643	80	18,733	48½		
Dividivi " 64,970 " " 22,737 "	75,631	71½	22,391	37			53,240	34½
Tobacco " 6,750 " " 4,689 "	214,087	37½	122,238	69			91,848	68½
Cow hides and goat-skins.....	176,027	15½	172,078	32			3,948	85½
Dyewoods	189,042	50	220,687	62	31,645	12		
Maize—1844, 8364 fngs.; 1845, 19,670 fngs.	12,897	62½	30,175	16	17,277	53½		
Straw hats—No. 32,674.....	17,760	37½	32,132	50	14,372	12½		
Silver ore—1844, 92,000 lbs.; 1845, 1170 lbs.	29,440	0	9,360	0			20,080	0
Platina " 424 " " 540½ "	18,264	81½	27,633	65	9,368	83½		
Pearls, 323½ oz., 528	65,625	0	112,250	0	46,625	0		
Emeralds, 55,000 carats, 125,199.....	35,000	0	52,746	0	17,746	0		
Sundries.....	223,151	31½	134,982	89			88,168	42½
	2,625,075	0	2,337,600	0	155,768	10½	443,243	10½
	Deduct increase.....						155,768	10½
	Decrease on the year.....						287,475	0

CHAPTER IV.

REPORT ON THE PORT OF CARTHAGENA FOR THE THREE YEARS ENDING,
DECEMBER 31, 1845.

BRITISH and Foreign Trade at the Port of Carthagena, New Granada, in 1844.

NATION.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.				REMARKS.
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value of Cargo in Sterling.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value of Cargo in Sterling.	
	No.	tns. 100th.	No.	£ s. d.	No.	tns. 100th.	No.	£ s.	
British	8	1890 24	97	33,585 0 6	8	1890 24	97	37,241 8	Not including specie per packet. Entered with British goods in ballast via Chagres.
New Granada	11	1152 49	80	35,847 14 0	11	1152 49	80	22,000 0	
Spanish	1	75 56	8	1,246 6 0	1	75 56	8		Of this $\frac{1}{2}$ in specie. Of this $\frac{1}{2}$ in specie. British manufactures.
French	6	1470 92	75	24,163 0 0	6	1470 92	75	12,000 0	
American	10	1646 82	65	18,913 12 0	10	1646 82	65	15,000 0	Difference of Exports and Imports remitted per packet.
Danish	1	125 19	7	2,936 6 0	1	125 19	7	1,000 0	
Total	37	6361 22	332	116,691 18 6	37	6361 22	332	87,241 8	

The British import trade is yearly on the decrease.

		£
In 1843, the quantity of British goods imported in British bottoms	amounted to	64,551
„ In New Granadian		52,189
Making a total of		116,740
In 1844, the quantity imported in British bottoms, amounted to		33,585
„ In New Granadian		35,847
Making a total of		69,432
In 1845, the amount in British bottoms, is only		25,321
„ In New Granadian		19,236
Making a total of		44,557

This decline is the result of the facilities afforded by the rival port of Santa Martha, for communication with the interior of the republic, and the more lenient system pursued at the custom-house of that port. The goods imported into Carthagena are almost exclusively for the consumption of the province, and few find their way into the interior.

The export trade is reduced almost entirely to *specie and bullion*, which is conveyed by the steamers of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, and deposited in the Bank of England, to cover the credits opened in that country.

Produce is exported chiefly from Savanilla (a port of export only, situated sixty miles to windward of Carthagena), and a small port close to Carthagena, called *Zapote*, the former of which may be called the tributary port of export for Carthagena in the present interrupted state of communication with the interior by the closing of the *Dique*. Vessels proceed hence to Savanilla to take in their homeward cargo, after unloading at this port. On the opening of the *Dique* (canal), Carthagena will again resume its place among the ports of export.

The total value of exports for this year from the Port of Carthagena is 13,488*l.*, of which only 637*l.* was exported in British bottoms. In proportion as the exports of Carthagena have decreased, so have those of Savanilla increased.

Thus in 1844, the amount exported from Savanilla was	£ 43,189
In 1845	52,638
Showing an increase in favour of 1845, of	9449L., or
seventeen per cent.	

The chief articles of export from Savanilla are sugar, coffee, cotton, hides, corn, tobacco, and dividivi. The amount of sugar exported is far greater this year than the preceding. In 1844, there was only exported to the value of 1158L. In 1845, there has been exported 225,408 lbs. at six dollars currency per 100 lbs. (twenty-four shillings sterling) amounting in value to 2504L., or an increase on last year of fifty-three per cent.

Cotton has decreased in value and quantity exported, the growers not taking sufficient pains to cleanse it sufficiently to compete with other markets. It has fallen in price from twenty-four to sixteen shillings the 100 lbs.

Dividivi is much reduced in importance as an article of export.

Maize, or Indian Corn has been exported to the value of 4054L., showing an increase over the preceding year of fifty-seven per cent. Its price varies from four to six shillings the fanega (two bushels and a half). It consists of two qualities, the white and red, the latter of which takes precedence. Maize forms the chief article of food of the population of the coast. It is pounded, moistened, undergoes a short culinary process, and is sold in the form of a cake under the name of bollo.

Bills on England are scarcely attainable, and the credits are met by the shipment of specie, and more especially *gold dust* (though prohibited), a large quantity of which continues to be exported, and may be bought on the coast at 250 to 262 dollars the lb. (50L. to 53L.) The surveillance of the custom-house has been unusually rigid in consequence of stringent orders from government, but nevertheless the produce of the gold mines of Antioquia, Choco, and Popayan, finds its way on board the steamers to the Bank of England.

The new gold mine discovered and opened in the year 1844, by a company of French and natives, at the head of the River Sinu, has proved a complete failure. The gold, though abundant, and of good quality, afforded only a dazzling prospect to needy adventurers, and the failure of the enterprise adds one more to the bubbles of these companies.

Tobacco, the great staple product of this country, is opening a vast source of revenue, and if properly managed, may become an important article of export. It still continues a government monopoly, and its cultivation is confined to the provinces of Ambalema and Jiron. A fear is entertained that a more liberal spirit in its cultivation may tend to deteriorate its value in foreign markets, thus an important product affording scope to agriculture and manufacture, a product peculiarly adapted to the varied soil of the country, and indolent character of its inhabitants, is hampered, and restricted from an ill-founded fear that the revenue will suffer.

At *Guaduas*, in the neighbourhood of the capital, a house has been established for the manufacture of cigars for exportation, and 4,000,000 of cigars have lately been contracted for.

Tobacco, Rum, Sugar, Coffee, and Aniseed, still continue prohibited articles of import. These, however, by a late regulation, may be bonded for re-exportation on notice to that effect being given within twenty-four hours.

The Tariff still remains as last year, though its revision has been strongly urged on government. The custom-house has, however, relaxed in its severity, and merchants are now permitted to rectify their manifests, and correct errors before presenting them to the collector, by which the odious imposition of double duties is avoided.

Vessels, of whatever nation, are exempt in this port from tonnage and anchorage duties until the year 1852—a boon granted to Carthagená for its sufferings in the siege of 1842. The only fees levied, are captain of ports and pilotage, even from these, packets and men-of-war are exonerated.

Exchange may be quoted from 530 dollars to 540 dollars currency, the 100L. sterling and doubloons command a premium of eleven to twelve per cent.

An Embryo Bank, called Caja de Ahorros, or Savings' Bank, has been established, and has yielded a nett per centage of two per month, or thirty-four per cent per annum, which may be considered as the value of money on good security.

The Digue or Canal, connecting the Bay of Carthagena with the Magdalena, is in full progress. Already one league of excavation has been effected. The dredging machine is to be shortly put in motion at the exit in the bay, which, meeting the excavating process at the town of Mahates, will complete the undertaking. The whole extent of this canal is about eighty miles from the Magdalena River near Barranca to Pasa-Caballos, in the Bay of Carthagena; of this only fifteen miles requires excavation, the rest is a natural channel. The depth is about four feet. Labourers are found in abundance at the rate of three rials, or eighteen-pence per diem, finding their own provisions.

A Steam Company to navigate the Magdalena has been formed in London. The new Granadian minister is elected honorary president, but this much to be desired undertaking will probably expire at its birth, as capitalists will be loth to risk their money in a country, the stability of whose institutions is still doubtful.

The Royal Mail Steam Packet Company continues its operations on this coast with increasing success, and admirable regularity. Merchants have, however, not as yet profited by the steamers for the transport of merchandise, the freight being considered too high.

The College numbers 200 pupils. The chairs of divinity, jurisprudence, and medicine, are filled, and the students qualified to take their degrees in these learned professions. A yearly public examination takes place for this purpose. The rudiments of the English and French languages are also taught.

There are two other preparatory seminaries, each of which numbers fifty scholars, who are taught in the different branches of education; and a school for the education of the better class of females is conducted in a spirit of progressive enlightenment. On the whole it may be said, that attention is being turned by the government to a more liberal system of education, the germs of which are already firmly planted.

Sufficient attention, however, is not paid to the moral and religious culture, the latter of which resolves itself in the observance principally of the outward forms of the Catholic religion, attendance on processions, &c. Throughout the republic, the priesthood are in a very depraved state, and with the exception of the higher dignitaries of the church, the common forms of morality and decorum are hardly observed.

There are Two Hospitals; the hospital of the Convent of San Juan de Dios for the poor, and the Military Hospital, conducted on a more liberal footing, access to which may be had by diseased sailors of foreign nations, on application being made to the commandant-general of the town.

The Salubrity of this port is greatly increased of latter years, owing to the greater attention to cleanliness, and perhaps a more favourable change in the seasons. Malignant fevers are rare, and though the heat is intense, the mortality among foreigners is not great. The thermometer ranges from 80 deg. to 86 deg. of Fahrenheit in the shade. The seasons are divided into two: the Verano, or dry season, and the Hibierno, or wet season; during the former, strong breezes from the north-east prevail.

The Population of Carthagena amounts to about 10,000; it is difficult to give an accurate estimate, as no census is taken. It is supposed that of this number not 1000 are white. A rapid amalgamation of colour is taking place, and ere long there will scarcely be a family on the coast of pure unmixed blood, so completely are the African and Indian races predominating over the purer Caucasian descendants of the Spanish race.

Santa Martha affords great advantages and facilities (from its locality) in the forwarding of merchandize to the interior, there being no land carriage, exposure, or transshipment, as they are at once shipped on board large-decked boats, and not again removed in any way until their arrival at Honda, the extremity of navigation on the River Magdalena; they have not these advantages in Carthagena, as the merchandise is shipped in small uncovered boats, having to go through a small canal where large boats cannot pass, and then landed and carried on mules' backs half a day's journey, to a town called

Barraula, on the Magdalena, where they are again reshipped in boats that go to Honda. In this operation there is great exposure and risk, besides considerable extra charges, which is not incurred at Santa Martha, where the merchandise is at once placed on board a boat that takes it directly to its destination, as there is a direct communication with the River Magdalena.

The principal part of the cargoes of the American, Dutch, and Granadian vessels also comprises a considerable proportion of British manufactures. A bonding warehouse has been established; merchandise can lay there for an unlimited time on paying at a rate of four per cent per annum.

There is a municipal duty on flour and some other articles, which vary in every town.

The most considerable exports are from Savanilla, a port situated at the entrance of the Magdalena, about forty miles to leeward of Santa Martha, and where there is no town, the only building being a temporary custom-house; the nearest town is Barranguilla, situated at about twenty-five miles distance. It is not a port of entry, and vessels are only allowed to proceed there to load with produce, by first calling at either the ports of Carthagena, Santa Martha, or Rio de la Hocha, entering at the custom-house, and having no goods, wares, or merchandise on board, but the necessary stores, &c., for the voyage. They then obtain clearance in ballast, with a permit to go there and load a cargo; from the facilities, and as this is the nearest port, and to windward, vessels prefer calling here for their clearance.

A considerable part of the produce shipped from Savanilla is for account of the merchants of Santa Martha, which obviates the charges of transporting it from the River Magdalena to this port.

The export of specie is considerably more than will appear by the returns. No duty being paid, as was formerly, it is difficult to ascertain correctly any average sum, as there is a very large quantity of gold-dust and bars clandestinely shipped. Uncoined gold and silver is altogether prohibited from being exported or found in the possession of any person within fifty leagues of the sea-coast, under the severest penalties.

The province of Santa Martha comprises six cantons, forty-five towns, besides several small Indian villages. The population, when the last census was taken four years ago, was 46,587 souls, and has increased very much since.

The principal and staple exports of the country affords the following; say, dye-woods of several descriptions, dry and salted hides, cotton, cedar, mahogany, dividivi, horned cattle, mules, horses, and asses, together with sugar, Indian corn, cocoa, &c. &c. The Indian corn is much cultivated, and is very productive; considerable quantities are exported to the British and other West India Islands.

The cultivation of the sugar-cane, coffee, and cocoa, has been much followed up lately; and considerable quantities of sugar are made, together with rum and other spirits, augmenting daily, and new estates establishing; the cultivation of which must benefit and advance the country rapidly, the lands being a virgin and productive soil, and this part of the country being so well watered throughout, that they are much less dependent on the seasons than in the islands; there are rivers and streams running in every direction.

The roads, within eight or ten leagues of the town, are tolerably good; and they have also the advantage of water-carriage further inland.

Agricultural affairs have been much retarded from the unsettled state of the country, the scantiness of population, and the numbers that were lately employed in the army, but, as the military are nearly all disbanded, they are now turning their attention to agricultural pursuits.

Fish.—There is abundance of river and sea-fish of the best description, and of excellent quality for salting. There are several natural salt ponds along the coast, and within a short distance from the town, where any quantity can be collected at a trifling expense.

There are several extensive lime and brick kilns within a short distance of the town, they make use of the coral rock for burning into lime.

The town is in a state of progressive improvement, and new buildings are erecting rapidly.

Slavery is abolishing fast ; in the year 1819 a law of congress was passed, declaring the issue of all slaves born after that period to be free on their attaining the age of eighteen years, it being considered that their services up to that period would initiate them into habits of industry, and be of some compensation to their owners for the expense and trouble of bring them up.

The principal part of the labourers here are the *Sanebós*, a mixed race between the Indian and negro. They are an athletic and hardy race, superior to the original Indian and negro stock. The average value of labour is from 1s. 6d. to 2s. sterling per diem, out of which they maintain themselves. Meats, provisions, dried fish, &c. &c., being uncommonly cheap, and from the nature of the climate, not requiring, and using very little clothing.

A steam-engine has lately been introduced, of about twenty-horse power, by Don Joaquin Leehelm, one of the most wealthy and intelligent men in the country. He has placed it on his estate of about one league from the town, and it has given so much satisfaction that several have been lately ordered from America.

Santa Martha, from its locality and other advantages, together with the extensive trade in corn, provisions, horses, cattle, &c. &c., with which it supplies Jamaica, and the other West India Islands, ranks it as one of the principal ports of "New Granada."

STATEMENT of the Trade of Panama, for the year 1843.

NATIONS.	ARRIVALS.				DEPARTURES.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.
	number.	tons.	number.	dollars.	number.	tons.	number.	dollars.
United States	1	149	7	22,900				
New Granada	34	1359	270	108,751	31	1276	249	297,972
Great Britain	2	438	23		2	4380	23	11,000
Ecuador	1	17	6	3,284	2	75	13	
Peru	4	265	32	12,567	3	230	25	
France	1	205	15		1	205	15	
Hamburg	1	106	10	6,750				
Total	44	2539	363	154,252	39	2224	325	308,972

STATEMENT of Transit Trade, *viâ* Chagres.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
NATIONS.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Value.
	dollars.		dollars.
United States	60,550	Gold and silver, coined	132,128
New Granada	329,292	Old silver	3,246
Great Britain	59,910	Old gold	262
Spain	27,680	Hats	16,042
		Sundries	257
Total of imports	477,432	Total of exports	151,935

COMMERCIAL Movement at Panama.

IMPORTS.	Dollars.	EXPORTS.	Dollars.
Imports	154,252	Exports	308,972
<i>Via</i> Chagres	477,432	<i>Via</i> Chagres	151,935
Of money not registered, supposed	30,000	Pearls, supposed	5,00
Of gold dust from Choco, supposed	20,000	Hides, <i>viâ</i> Chagres and Panama	45,000
		Gold dust	53,000
Total	681,684	Sundries	12,000
		Total	620,907

Imports and Exports of Santa Martha in 1845.

IMPORTS.

Whence Im-ported.	Flour.	Pro-visions	Wines	Spirits	Oils.	Cotton Manu-fac-tures.	Prints. Cotton Manu-fac-tures.	Sewing Threads	Wool-len Manu-fac-tures and Cloths.	Com-mon Linen Manu-fac-tures.	Fine Linen Manu-fac-tures.	Silks.	Cord-age & Tar.	Iron.	Hard-ware.	Glass and Earth-en-ware.	Perfu-mery.	Drugs.	Gun-pow-der.	Sun-dries.	Total Value.	Total Value in Pounds Sterling.
	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	£ s.
England and Jamaica...	2,768	3,296	1,748	18,552	3,728	609,500	353,512	38,028	276,584	107,404	536	25,320	..	4844	187,168	20,084	1980	2932	7784	143,860	1,809,628	361,925 12
France.....	14	912	4,104	3,329	201	7,108	208	6,012	29,236	658	395	42,280	..	2169	9,012	4,442	632	1515	2190	32,772	144,912	28,982 8
United States	4,002	2,778	1,425	2,496	264	15	..	..	304	2,552	..	44	1587	474	1,386	2,025	84	2518	..	5,946	30,090	6,018 0
Curacao.....	363	354	..	..	21	11,512	3,952	630	2,948	3,612	96	424	..	63	4,467	186	519	30	..	2,037	31,214	6,242 10
Sardinia.....	..	4,539	9,528	522	768	..	..	..	1,208	..	..	188	..	798	..	..	399	321	..	19,113	37,384	7,476 16
St. Thomas..	1,395	381	375	813	..	11,536	4,132	..	828	4,624	540	2,180	..	201	1,470	1,581	75	..	24	1,476	31,631	6,326 4
Total....	8,542	12,260	17,180	25,712	4,982	639,671	361,804	44,670	311,108	118,850	1567	70,436	1587	8549	203,503	28,318	3689	7316	9998	205,204	2,084,859	416,971 16

EXPORTS.

Country Ex-ported to.	Specie.		Hides, dry and salted.	Vege-table Ivory.	Brazi-lete.	Beans and Maize.	Horses	Cotton.	Fustic.	Cocoa.	Woods or Timber	To-bacco.	Sugar.	Hogs.	Coffee.	Sarsa-parilla.	Cattle.	Starch.	Old Copper	Sun-dries.	Total Value.	Total Value in Sterling.		
	Dou-bleons.	Hard Dol-lars.																				£	s.	
England and Jamaica...	472,968	1151	2,620	4754	..	2572	1680	..	27,876	980	960	47,659	778	1150	..	404	314	354	..	4087	570,308	114,061	12	
France.....	7,648	26	580	210	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	150	..	8,614	1,722	16	
Curacao.....	2,256	5	..	..	..	890	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	200	209	..	..	..	1097	8,626	855	12	
United States	..	..	4,729	570	2840	30	..	..	..	14	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	61	34	12,433	1,725	4	
Sardinia.....	2,208	..	9,411	..	..	..	..	608	40	..	..	55	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50	..	2,486	12	
Total.....	485,080	1182	17,340	5534	2840	3492	1680	608	27,916	994	960	47,714	778	1150	200	613	314	384	211	5268	604,259	120,851	16	
Value of 1844	267,094	550	23,976	135	4110	580	3554	1448	1,091	2849	1068	103,174	168	300	3087	154	..	..	..	9072	422,415	84,483	0	
Increase.....	217,986	632	..	5399	..	2912	..	..	26,825	..	..	..	610	850	..	459	314	384	211	..	..	181,844	36,368	16
Decrease.....	..	..	6,636	..	1270	..	1874	840	..	1855	108	55,460	..	..	2887	..	..	..	..	3804	..	..	..	

CENTRAL AMERICA.—The following consular statement for the years 1843 to 1844, though referring to the Isthmus of Nicaragua and to Salvador, we subjoin in the absence of further information.

The foreign import trade of the state of Nicaragua, and of the republics in general of Central America, has been greatly effected by the *continuance* of the internal *commotions*; nevertheless, owing to the great competition of speculators, the consumption of foreign manufactures has increased.

The quantity of indigo exported has been about 4500 bales, three-fourths of which were the produce of the state of San Salvador, the crops of Nicaragua having almost entirely failed, owing to the want of rain during the season.

The civil war of Guatemala has partially interrupted the cultivation of cochineal, to which attention has been given in the state of Nicaragua and Salvador.

Agriculture is making some progress in Costa Rica. Coffee, which is of a superior quality, is becoming an article of export trade. 5000 quintals were shipped last year. The quantity of chancala (coarse sugar) exported from the ports of the Republic in 1838, is estimated at about 35,000 quintals, of which Costa Rica produced about two-thirds.

Mines.—Some activity is also visible in the mining districts of Costa Rica, and some valuable machinery has arrived from England.

Nicaragua is beginning to encourage the working of mines, which are supposed to abound in the mountainous districts. Gold, silver, and copper abound in all parts of the state of Honduras, but the insecurity of the country prevents persons from embarking capital in these works

CHAPTER V.

STATISTICS OF VENEZUELA.

Mines.—We have no account on which any reliance can be placed with reference to the minerals of Venezuela. The precious metals are reported to be abundant, especially in Cundinamarca. In Choco and Antiaqueo gold and silver are found, and, it is said, quicksilver. Mines of lead, iron, and copper have been worked in Socono. General Mac Gregor had cannon cast of the copper in 1813, but the backward state of enterprise has, with trifling exceptions, left the mineral riches of Venezuela undisturbed. Pasturage and agriculture, being, for a very thinly-settled region, far more immediate means of subsistence: especially since the Spanish race can no longer enslave the aborigines to work the mines.

Manufactures.—Comparatively speaking, manufactures scarcely more than exist. Tanned leather and morocco leather are prepared in Corora, blankets are made in Tocuyo, on a small scale, and constitute the chief manufactures. Some other articles are made by foreign workmen established in the country. The vapour *refined sugars*, the *cured hides*, and the *soaps*, might obtain preference

to the same articles from the United States—*tallow candles* are made of fair quality.

Some articles peculiar to the country are worthy of attention—such as *mats* made by the Indians of the *fibres* of the palm-tree, called *Mauritia*, and *hemp* of the *cocuisa aloe*, of a peculiar fineness, and *straw hats* of Maracaybo, equal in quality, or nearly so, to those of Panama. The interior provinces of Barquisimeto, of Merida, and Trujillo, manufacture *table-cloths of cotton*, but will not bear comparison with similar European articles.

The mechanical trades are workers in *jewellery*, *locksmiths' work*, *armourers work*, *joinery*, and *saddlery*, of little importance. They are manufactured with rough, coarse tools.

Joinery and *saddlery* are the most advanced trades at Caraccas, through the means of foreigners, who, for twenty years, have been settled at that place. Few samples of furniture show the great varieties of wood valuable for cabinet-makers' work.

Agriculture.—We can only give a mere sketch of the state of agriculture in this state. It is in a greater degree a pastoral than an agricultural country. Yet this extensive region has soils and climates adapted for the growth of every useful and rich product. Among the articles cultivated are some wheat in the high parts; maize, or Indian corn for tortillas (the corn bread), sugar, cacao, coffee; some cotton, indigo, and tobacco.

During the four years 1799 to 1803, 145,000 fanegas of cacao were exported from Maracaybo and Venezuela.

Sugar has long been cultivated and exported, but not in great quantities. It has been exported to England since the duty has been diminished. (See Trade of Venezuela.) And the province of Caraccas, if labour were abundant and enterprise exerted, has a soil and climate to produce an immense quantity.

Coffee.—Excellent coffee might be raised with ordinary care. At present its quality is inferior to that of Jamaica. The produce, in 1812, was estimated at 5,000,000 lbs. There are two kinds, the one called *of hot earth*, the other *of cold earth*; they are worth the ordinary qualities, ten gourdes and a half per 100 lbs.* Spanish (ninety-one francs per 100 kilogrammes).

Under the Spanish domination, the exportation of coffee did not surpass 60,000 quintals (2,760,000 kilogrammes) per year. From the 1st of July, 1840, to the 30th of June, 1841, the exports were estimated by the custom-house at 259,992 quintals (11,960,000 kilogrammes) of a value of 2,446,962 gourdes, or 9,788,000 francs. If to this quantity is added the 35,000 quintals, which is annually consumed at Venezuela, the actual production would be of 294,992 quintals (13,570,000 kilogrammes).

The soil and climate being one of the most favourable for the culture of this bean, it is estimated, that when once the new plantations shall be in full bearing, the country will produce above 500,000 quintals of coffee (23,000,000 kilogrammes).

Cocoa.—There are numerous plantations of this indigenous fruit, chiefly in the valleys beyond the mountains of the sea-coast. In 1789, 103,655 fanegas were exported. The produce of Caraccas, Maracaybo, Cumana, and New Barcelona, in 1806, was estimated at 193,000 fanegas. That of Caraccas is considered superior, not only to the cocoa of

* The pound is 0.46 kilogrammes.

other parts of the republic, but to every other country. The *red* varies in price from sixteen to twenty-four gourdes per 110 lbs. of Spain (136 to 226 francs per 100 kilogrammes). *Gray* cocoa (which was that sent to France before the promulgation of the late Spanish *laws* on the customs of the *vascondagas* provinces) is worth at Caraccas from twelve to eighteen gourdes per 110 lbs. Spanish (113 to 170 francs per 100 kilogrammes).

There was exported from the 1st of July, 1840, to the 30th of June, 1841, 76,560 quintals (3,521,700 kilogrammes) of cocoa, of a value of 1,327,000 gourdes (5,308,000 francs).

The local consumption is calculated to be about 36,000 quintals (1,650,000 kilogrammes), and the contraband trade conceals nearly 15,000 quintals, (690,000 kilogrammes), which makes the product amount to 128,000 quintals (5,818,000 kilogrammes).

The culture of this article was of greater importance in the time of the Spaniards, as the exportation amounted then to 95,000 quintals (4,370,000 kilogrammes), but a great number of cocoa-trees were destroyed during the war of the Independence. Later, and up to 1835, the planters either had not the means, or dared not, in the uncertain state in which they lived, form new plantations. The valley of Tuy lately cultivated, which is only eight or nine leagues from Caraccas, produces excellent cocoa.

Indigo.—There are three kinds, but all are inferior to the indigo of India. That of the valley of Tuy is the most esteemed. The culture and trade of indigo at Venezuela has lost much of their importance since its separation from Spain. Before 1820, the exportation amounted annually to 10,000 quintals (460,000 kilogrammes), of a value of 1,200,000 piastres specie (6,500,000 francs); from July 1, 1840, to June 30, 1841, it amounted but to 5462 quintals (251,200 kilogrammes), which at 125 gourdes per quintal, has produced a sum of 682,750 gourdes, or 2,731,000 francs.

Cotton is not in quality so good as that of the United States. It is worth on an average thirteen gourdes per 100 lbs. Spanish (113 francs per 100 kilogrammes). Venezuela has not the long silky-like cotton.

The exportation of cotton from July 1, 1840, to June 30, 1841, amounted to 2,014,000 lbs. (926,440 kilogrammes), of a value of 242,000 gourdes (968,000 francs).

According to official documents published at Caraccas in 1839, about 50,000 quintals of cotton (2,300,000 kilogrammes), were produced, which at ten gourdes and a half per quintal, produces a value of 525,000 gourdes (2,362,000 francs); the exportation amounted the same year to 27,993 quintals (926,300 kilogrammes), valued by the minister of the finances, at 241,989 gourdes (968,000 francs). Under the Spanish government, the exportation of cotton never amounted to 25,000 quintals (1,150,000 kilogrammes).

Leather (sole leather).—That of Caraccas is considered too heavy; that of Puerto Cabello and of Angostura is exported to France. The exportation of leather, from July 1, 1840 to June 30, 1841, amounted to 574,000 lbs. (264,000 kilogrammes), valued at 506,000 gourdes 2,024,000 francs).

Dividivi.—Is a kind of husk that covers certain seeds.

To be used it must be reduced to powder, sifted, and boiled in water for the space of eight or ten hours. It is sold wholesale from six to eight reals per quintal (6fr. 50c. to 8fr. 70c. per 100 kilogrammes).

The exportation of *dibidivi* amounted to 1,264,000 lbs. (581,440 kilogrammes), valuing 18,000 gourdes (72,000 francs).

Sarsaparilla.—13,000 lbs. (5980 kilogrammes), have been exported, of a value of 2500 gourdes (10,000 francs).

Dyeing-woods and Lignum-vitæ.—Are very little esteemed in France, and serve in general for ship ballast.

Tobacco.—There is a great variety of tobaccos in Venezuela: that of Varinas and of Cumanacao, if well selected, is excellent for cigars.

The Varinas tobacco costs but twelve gourdes or twenty-five cents, to thirteen gourdes at Angostura on the Orinoco. Until now there has been produced in the whole repub-

lic, but 50,000 or 60,000 quintals of tobacco per year (2,300,000 to 2,700,000 kilogrammes), amounting to a value of about 500,000 gourdes (40,000*l.*).

In 1841, 11,943 quintals of tobacco were exported (550,000 kilogrammes), value 146,944 gourdes (23,200*l.*). In the time of the Spaniards, the monopoly, *el estanco*, of tobacco, produced as much as 60,000*l.* annually.

Sugar.—Venezuela has seldom produced sugar, except for home consumption; in 1841, there were exported but 8794 quintals (404,500 kilogrammes). The soil is well adapted for the culture of the sugar-cane; that which is wanting are labourers: there are only 49,000 *slaves* in the whole state. In 1844 the total quantity of sugar exported was about 220 tons, in 1835 about 376 tons. Since the alteration of the sugar duties in 1845 there were exported to England from Venezuela during the six months ending the 20th of June, 702 tons, price 18*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* per ton.

Cattle forms the principal wealth of Venezuela. The Llanos, or vast plains of the Orinoco, are covered with herds. There are reckoned to be about 2,400,000 horned cattle, 1,900,000 sheep and goats, and 400,000 pigs. During ten years the number has nearly doubled, notwithstanding the great interior consumption and mortality which has laid waste the principal *hatos* of Venezuela.

The Venezuelan *mules* are indefatigable, especially those of Angostura. One or two schooners from Martinique import them.

Indigo was first cultivated, or rather prepared in 1774, and next to tobacco, it becomes the most important product of the valley of Cumanacao, of San Fernando, and of Arenas in 1784 there were exported from La Guyara 126,233 lbs; in 1796, no less than 737,996 lbs.; while that of Guatemala at the same time was estimated at 1,200,000 lbs.

Vanilla grows in abundance in the forests. Wild cochineal grows near Coro, Carona, Truxillo, and it is produced of excellent quality in Cundinamarca. Brazil wood is exported from Maracaybo.

Cocoa trees are grown around the villages and houses, and at Cumana they have haciendas, or farms of cocoa-trees; excellent oil is extracted from the nut; sarsaparilla, Jesuits' bark, numerous medicinal plants, drugs and resins are abundant; tamarinds, oranges, and all tropical fruits thrive.

The forest trees are of the most varied and useful kinds.

Ship-building Timber.—If cut in national forests, exportation prohibited.

M. Depons says in his time, there were more than 1,200,000 oxen, 180,000 horses, and 90,000 mules pastured on the plains between the Orinoco and Maracaybo; 174,000 ox-hides are said to have been exported in 1790. Herds of cattle are now spread over the pastoral districts.

Along the banks of the Orinoco agriculture is nearly altogether neglected, and the inhabitants are described as remarkably indolent by Robinson and others.

The cattle are killed in the same manner as in Spain. The animal is led to a stake, and the point of a strong sharp knife is stuck in between the two first curvical vertebræ, and the beast drops down instantly dead.*

The agricultural and other products of the country which enter into commerce as articles of export, are stated in the statistical tables of trade.

* Robinson says, "Sometimes they bleed the animal, and sometimes not; but all of them agree in one method of cutting up the meat. No sooner has it ceased to breathe, than they commence the skinning process; and no sooner have they skinned part of it than that part is sliced off in the coarsest manner. Thus it is slashed, cut, and torn asunder in every possible form; the unsalted part being used as pieces for roasting, stewing, and boiling; while the greater part that remains is rolled in salt and hung for a few days in the heat of the sun. Then when dry they call it Tasso; and this, with the hides, form a great part of their merchandise either among themselves or with the West India Islands."

He says, "The people here drink very freely. Their breakfast in general consists of beef and (if they have it) wine or rum, and sometimes a cup of chocolate or coffee. Having performed several surgical operations in Soledad, a village near Angostura, I may here give a sort of notion how they live in that village. The breakfast is a large basin of beef, boiled with plantains: a large basin of stewed beef and onions or garlic; generally a large basin of tripe, stewed with onions or garlic; and, lastly, a piece of beef roasted over the fire on a wooden spit.

"It must be observed that this last is not brought to table on a plate, but sticking hard and fast

CHAPTER VI.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

NEARLY all the trade of the state of Venezuela was formerly carried on from the ports of Caraccas, chiefly through La Guayra, into each of the ports of Maracaybo, Cumana, and Old Guayra, two or three vessels were admitted from Spain. M. Lavaysse, who seems to have investigated the state of trade of Venezuela during the first years of the present century, says—

“According to official statements, Venezuela, during the year 1807, the value of the agricultural produce exported from the provinces which composed this fine country, exclusive of Trinidad, from 1794 until 1806, amounted to about 4,000,000 dollars annually; but, according to the documents taken from the custom-houses of Port of Spain in Trinidad, and from those of the islands of Grenada, Tobago, Curaçoa, St. Thomas', and Martinico, which carried on the contraband trade with the provinces of Venezuela. I am sure the smugglers carried off annually, on an average, more than 2,500,000 dollars in produce; consisting of cocoa, cotton, indigo, a little cochineal, arnotto, woods for dyeing and cabinet-makers, copper, hides, maize, salted and smoked meat and fish, oxen, horses, mules, asses, monkeys, parrots, &c., and about 600,000 or 700,000 dollars in specie, and

to the spit on which it was roasted. A person steps round from person to person, till all are served by cutting off what they wish. The bread is generally made of Indian corn, and sometimes rice. Besides Indian corn, there is another kind of bread, which they call cassava. It very much resembles in appearance the oatmeal cakes used in Scotland; but is almost tasteless. The natives use it plentifully, and seem to prefer both it and the Indian corn to our flour. The drink is, not tea, but rum-grog, and very often wine (claret). Punch is served up at eleven o'clock, which continues to be used till dinner-time. Dinner is the same as breakfast; and the evening is passed in playing cards, smoking cigars, and drinking.

“So far as I have penetrated South America I have uniformly observed, that the inhabitants seem to have no idea of grinding or bruising their materials by means of any other machinery than that which they possess in the strength of their arms, aided by a concave and convex stone to fit it, or by a wooden mortar. On the surface of the concave stone they put their material to be bruised, such as pepper, salt, coffee, &c. and it is almost incredible to what a fineness they speedily reduce these substances; while their Indian corn, rice, and such substances are bruised in the wooden mortar. After the corn has been bruised, and sometimes the rice, they subject them to the friction of the two stones, with a little water, and thus they form the one or the other into a dough for making bread.

“The better orders of the people conduct themselves at table with great regularity and propriety, as much so, indeed, as could be expected in any country where the advantages of European civilisation have not been experienced.

“The middle orders of people, however, seldom have even one knife at table, and three-fourths of them have nothing but their fingers as substitutes for spoons, knives, and forks. The lower orders, indeed, would apply them to no other purpose than as weapons of destruction to stab each other.

“From this coarse mode of feeding among the great body of the people, and from the gross materials upon which they subsist, stomachic complaints are very prevalent, which are greatly increased by habits naturally indolent and unclean.

“Smoking tobacco, especially in the form of cigars, is almost universally practised: and almost all the women, who practise this more than the men, lose their front teeth.

“Gaming, especially on Sunday, is carried on here to a great extent. This consists in billiards and in cards; and, while the outcry of every one is poverty, poverty, were you to walk into any of the huts, for instance of Soledad, you would find the tables loaded with silver and gold.

“The women dress their long, lank, black hair in two tresses, one on each side of the head. Among the higher classes, they seem to dress it in one twist, which they fasten with a comb to the upper and posterior part of their head, somewhat in the English fashion.”

since 1801, a small quantity of sugar* and coffee. There were annually exported from these provinces to Spain and Mexico,† about 2,000,000 dollars in colonial produce; which increases the exportations to about 5,200,000 dollars.

"The official statements of the intendancy of Caraccas specified the importations into this country, including contraband trade, at only 5,500,000 dollars, at the same period; but those statements are below the truth. On an average from 1789 to 1807, the annual importations amounted to nearly 6,500,000 dollars, including smuggling. Previous to the French revolution, the French had half of this trade. The French merchants of Martinico, the Dutch of St. Eustacia and Curaçoa, the Danish of St. Thomas, and the Swedish of St. Bartholomew, had their share in this commerce; but since the Island of Trinidad was taken by the British, in 1797, they have obtained all the trade of that country, where they have established commercial connexions, even as far as the central point of South America, in Santa Fé de Bogota, capital of the kingdom of New Granada, whose bishop, a dealer in human flesh, carried on, in 1788 and 1789, the negro trade, in conjunction with an English house in Dominica."

Humboldt, in 1803, estimated the exports of Venezuela at nearly 6,000,000 of Spanish dollars, equal to 1,333,333*l.* English money. The exports of La Guayra amounted according to his statement, to 2,400,000 dollars; those of Cumana and Nueva Barcelona, to 1,200,000 dollars; of Maracaybo and Angostura to 1,000,000 dollars; and those of Carupano and some smaller ports to 800,000 dollars. During the war of independence agriculture was much neglected, and the amount of exports decreased. In 1824, a year after that event had taken place, the exports of La Guayra did not exceed 1,650,000 dollars, though some of the articles sold at a higher price. The disturbed state of the country has prevented the trade from improving, as is apparent from the British imports, which, though by far the most important, did not exceed 200,000*l.* annually, between 1829 and 1837, on the average of that period.

STATEMENT of the Value in currency dollars of Imports into, and Exports from, the Republic of Venezuela, with the Amount of Duties thereon, distinguishing the Trade with each Country, in the Year ending the 30th of June, 1839.

C O U N T R I E S.	V A L U E.			D U T I E S.		
	Imports.	Exports.	TOTAL.	Imports.	Exports.	TOTAL.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Germany	465,504	775,623	1,242,127	161,034	38,930	199,965
Sardinia.....	6,273	20,430	26,703	2,668	956	3,624
Denmark.....	955,274	536,911	1,492,185	239,640	29,046	268,687
United States.....	1,217,227	2,006,987	3,224,214	233,096	95,972	329,069
Spain.....	162,454	543,308	705,763	25,953	23,628	49,582
France	205,505	520,789	726,295	64,577	22,999	87,576
Great Britain.....	987,048	740,418	1,727,466	295,675	39,227	334,902
Holland	255,153	211,593	466,747	56,654	8,695	65,350
Mexico.....	853	8,822	9,675	344	440	784
New Granada	31,333	1,118	32,452	241	9	251
Sweden	957	2,113	3,070	4	2	6
Other Countries.....	14,961	3,072	18,033	10,282	479	10,761
Total value, dollars....	4,302,548	5,371,188	9,673,736	1,090,173	260,388	1,350,562
" £ sterling....	717,091	895,198	1,612,289	181,695	43,398	225,093

* Ten years ago (about 1820) there was scarcely as much sugar made as sufficed the local consumption. I believe I do not exaggerate when I say that, on an average, every individual, rich or poor, consumes at least one pound of it per day. It is mixed with almost all kinds of food and drink; and is indispensable for chocolate, which is taken three or four times each day.—*Lavaysse.*

† A great quantity of Venezuela cocoa, commonly called Caracca, is exported to Vera Cruz.—*Ibid.*

Report on the Trade of Venezuela, drawn up from Official Returns at Caraccas, and published by the Minister of Commerce and Agriculture, in his Official Bulletin, 1845.

Imports.—The total imports for 1841-42, were estimated at 25,220,000 francs, and in 1843-44, they fell to 17,636,000 francs (twenty-five francs to one pound sterling).

Exports.—The exports for the same period fell from 30,412,000 to 23,867,000 francs.

Decrease of Trade.—The total value, therefore, of the trade of 1843-44, gives a diminution of 14,129,000 francs, or twenty-five per cent, in comparison to that of 1841-42, and of 6,025,000 francs, or twelve per cent on that of 1842-43.

Cause.—The cause of this decrease is attributed to the badness of the seasons during the last few years—it greatly affecting the breeding of beasts and agriculture, which are the trading resources of the country. The rapidly progressive steps taken by this trade during the first twelve years of its political existence, from 1830 to 1842, was mostly owing to the credit which a country, possessing such vast resources, easily procures, at its first outset in the commercial world.

Foreign Capital.—By means of foreign capital, borrowed at fifteen, eighteen, and even twenty per cent, agricultural proprietors, having carried on their operations to an unlimited extent, an epoch of pecuniary embarrassment had overtaken them, thus creating many failures, whilst others, not so unfortunate, were compelled to retrench their expenses and their purchases, which naturally was seriously felt by the exterior trade.

Amount of decrease per Countries.—In the following tables, showing the nature and value of the merchandises composing the trade of Venezuela, it will be more particularly remarked, that the trade of Denmark and its colonies has decreased in the whole 2,803,000 francs; that of France, 1,787,000 francs; that of Spain, 1,500,000 francs; and that of England, a little more than 1,000,000 francs. The trade with the Hanse Towns and Netherlands, has remained pretty much the same. The United States is the only country which has at all increased in its trade with Venezuela. It purchases in general inferior coffee, the better quality being consumed by Germany; of 3,000,000 of kilogrammes of the latter quality, being about one-fourth part of the total exportation of this article, Hamburg took 2,500,000 in the years 1843-44, the remainder went to Bremen; the Hanse Towns are the most advantageously placed in the trade of Venezuela. From 1831 to 1842, the French trade with this country greatly developed itself. During those eleven years, its envoys rose from the paltry sum of 120,000 francs to 3,161,000 francs! and its purchases at Venezuela, from 537,000 francs to 3,886,000 francs! No other country had increased its trade with Venezuela so rapidly and in so short a time. If this trade has fallen off from 1842 to 1844, it is not the only country which experienced at that time this kind of stagnation.

Denmark, or rather the Danish possession St. Thomas, has also experienced a similar decrease in its trade with Venezuela. In 1831 its total value amounted to 7,876,000 francs, in 1841 it was estimated at more than 9,000,000 francs, but in 1843 it did not exceed 4,297,000 francs. The Island of St. Thomas, a well-known entrepôt for the trade of Europe with the continent of America, loses much of its importance in proportion as the trade with this part of America becomes more *direct*. It is the same with the Island of Curaçao which greatly affected the exchanges of the Netherlands. Its transactions with Venezuela in 1831 valued 843,000 francs; in 1841, 3,140,000 francs; and in 1843 they suddenly fell to 2,374,000 francs; and although they were more considerable in 1844 than in 1843, nevertheless its trade with Venezuela seems gradually relaxing.

Several other countries of America have a small trade with Venezuela, which may increase in importance as their population progresses, and more particularly are distinguished under this head Mexico and New Granada. Sardinia and Belgium are also beginning to frequent its ports. If we compare the years 1842 and 1843, we find the importations of *tissues* during the latter period to have considerably decreased, whereas *specie* had greatly increased, this latter causing, no doubt, the fall in the *tissues*.

Exports.—Among the exports, *coffee, tobacco, indigo, cotton*, and *specie* have greatly decreased. Of *coffee*, the exports in 1841 amounted to 13,500,000 francs; in 1842 they fell to 10,113,000 francs; and in 1843 to 8,893,000 francs. The Venezuelan

treasury depending principally upon the customs duties, necessarily experiences a great reduction in its revenue.

Customs Dues.—In the year 1840, when this republic had attained the height of its prosperity, these duties amounted to 9,000,000 francs; in 1843 they were estimated at only 5,669,000 francs, of which 5,276,000 francs were levied on the imports, or thirty per cent of the total value imported.

Imports.—Of 17,636,000 francs of imports, the ports of *La Guayra* received 9,738,000 francs; *Puerto Cabello* 2,984,000 francs; *Maracaybo* 1,922,000 francs; *Cumana* 812,000 francs; *Angostura* 631,000 francs, &c.

Exports.—Of 23,876,000 francs of exports, the ports of *La Guayra* contributed 9,184,000 francs; *Puerto-Cabello* 6,094,000 francs; *Maracaybo* 2,606,000 francs; *Angostura* 2,416,000 francs; *Maturin* 875,000 francs, &c.

Coasting Trade.—These six ports had more than seven-eighths of the whole Venezuelan trade; the others, such as *Barcelona*, *Guiria*, *La Vela*, &c., confined themselves more particularly to the coasting trade.

Cattle Trade.—*Maturin* monopolises the cattle trade.

GENERAL Trade of different Countries with Venezuela, in 1842, 1844.				PRINCIPAL Articles of Import.	
COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.	TOTAL.	ARTICLES.	Francs.
	fr.	fr.	fr.		
United States.....	3,116,000	6,870,000	9,986,000	Tissues of cotton.....	5,464,000
England and its colonies....	5,094,000	4,032,000	9,126,000	" of thread.....	3,094,000
Hanse Towns.....	2,724,000	3,510,000	6,234,000	" of silk.....	621,000
Spain and its colonies.....	871,000	4,342,000	5,213,000	" of wool.....	596,000
Denmark and its colonies...	2,863,000	1,434,000	4,297,000	Flour.....	882,000
France and its colonies.....	1,546,000	1,738,000	3,284,000	Provisions.....	755,000
Netherlands and its colonies.	1,248,000	1,125,000	2,373,000	Hardware.....	571,000
Mexico.....	37,000	591,000	628,000	Soap.....	525,000
Other countries.....	137,000	225,000	362,000	Wine*.....	454,000
Total	17,636,000	23,867,000	41,503,000	Specie.....	1,746,000
Total of the year 1842..	20,439,000	27,089,000	47,528,000	* 20,000 dozen bottles and 71,000 arrobes in casks.	

EXPORTS, 1843, 1844.

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.	Whence exported.	Quantity.
	kil.	fr.		kil.
Coffee.....	13,244,000	8,893,000	United States.....	6,694,000
Cocoa.....	4,107,000	5,404,000	Hanse Towns.....	2,984,000
Cured hides.....	627,660	2,584,000	England.....	1,706,000
Indigo.....	163,000	1,322,000	France.....	899,000
Tobacco	1,172,000	1,050,000	Denmark.....	715,000
Cattle.....	number.	717,000	Spain.....	2,870,000
	14,894		France.....	532,000
Cotton.....	kil.	660,000	Mexico.....	442,000
	954,000		Principally to the United States.	
Mules and Horses.....	number.	643,000	United States.....	132,000
	1,848		Hanse Towns.....	1,167,000
Dibidivi.....	kil.	208,000	England.....	number.
	2,121,000		France and its colonies.....	12,823
Specie.....	..	912,000		1,839
				kil.
			England.....	373,000
			Hanse Towns.....	190,000
			Spain	147,000
			France.....	139,000
				number.
			England.....	1,584
				kil.
			England.....	2,084,000
				fr.
			Denmark.....	401,000
			Netherlands.....	179,000
			Spain.....	170,000

NAVIGATION from the 1st July, 1840, to the 30th of June, 1841.

P O R T S.	E N T E R E D.				D E P A R T E D.			
	Vessels of the Republic.		Foreign Vessels.		Vessels of the Republic.		Foreign Vessels.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
La Guayra.....	28	2,414	197	31,560	22	2,698	173	28,714
Puerto Cabello.....	27	2,479	151	16,362	34	2,073	162	17,157
Angostura.....	44	2,163	10	1,780	170	8,944	40	5,289
Maracaybo	26	2,266	35	5,344	32	2,578	48	6,973
Maturin.....	29	482	7	439	247	5,467	54	1,731
La Vela.....	41	1,675	30	1,322	23	1,063	26	1,219
Guiria.....	23	506	1	39	506	3,022	11	121
Cumana.....	13	1,094	11	759	8	625	14	901
Barcelona.....	21	998	8	350	11	919	9	363
Carupano.....	19	215	8	771	37	532	14	844
Adicora y Juyavsa.....	..	..	..	..	23	1,439	2	59
Pampatar.....	66	577	2	43	103	802	2	43
Juan Griego.....	17	317	1	19	72	651	16	415
Cumarebo.....	..	..	..	..	19	109	14	343
Choroní.....	..	..	..	..	1	191	1	228
Riocaribe.....	..	..	..	..	6	96	3	288
Higueroti.....	..	..	..	..	2	136	2	194
Total.....	354	15,186	461	58,788	1316	31,345	591	64,882

TRADE OF VENEZUELA WITH FRANCE IN THE YEARS 1842, 1843, AND 1844.

The value of the trade of France is as follows (the direct operations only):—

Imported into France from Venezuela . . . 3,142,099 francs.

Imported into Venezuela from France . . . 3,348,235 „

Total . . 6,491,034. „

In 1838 this trade did not exceed 4,500,000.

In the French imports, coffee, in 1842 (special trade), 1,203,824 francs (1,416,264 kilogrammes); cotton, 493,429 francs (274,127 kilogrammes); Indigo, 518,416 francs (32,401 kilogrammes); skins, raw, 305,422 francs (169,679 kilogrammes); cocoa, 174,933 francs (194,370 kilogrammes), &c.

In the French exports, silken tissues, 730,956 francs; cotton, 187,771 francs; wines, 164,589 francs; brandy, 118,633 francs; paper, books, and engravings, 150,834 francs; pottery, glass, and crystals, 106,510 francs; perfumery and soaps, 187,000 francs; cloths, 145,000 francs; mercery and fashions, 136,000 francs; linen cloths, 95,500; gold and silver ware, jewellery, manufactured metals, and Parisian industry, 148,000 francs, &c.

Navigation.—According to official documents, the navigation, in 1843, gave employment to fifty-one vessels, measuring 8477 tons, all French except five, giving an increase, in comparison with 1842, of six vessels, and 1314 tons; in 1844 there were only twenty-eight vessels, measuring 4315 tons, of which twenty-three were French.

EXPORTS from Venezuela to France.			IMPORTS into Venezuela from France.		
A R T I C L E S.	1843	1844	A R T I C L E S.	1843	1844
	francs.	francs.		francs.	francs.
Coffee.....	1,466,000	942,000	Tissues of silk.....	435,000	443,000
Indigo	512,000	339,000	„ of wool.....	135,000	249,000
Raw hides	431,000	274,000	„ of cotton	112,000	121,000
Cotton	310,000	132,000	„ of flax	68,000	55,000
Cocoa	229,000	315,000	Wines.....	139,000	82,000
			Paper, books, and engravings ..	97,000	170,000
			Cured and tanned hides	88,000	151,000
			Perfumes, &c.....	80,000	128,000

Indianas and cotton-stuffs have been furnished, up to the present time, by England, Germany, and Switzerland. This latter country exports only indianas of middling quality. The Americans introduce their common cotton domestic stuffs into Venezuela.

Ordinary and fine linens are, in general, imported from England and Germany.

Woollen cloth comes principally from France, and also from England, Belgium, and Germany, of the ordinary qualities.

Silks are from France, England, and Germany. England imports but small quantities, generally of Indian *foulards*, and stuff for cravats and waistcoats; Switzerland imports plain ribbons; Germany copies French designs, furnishes stuffs and velvets of silk. Yet France exports to Venezuela all kinds of stuffs of silk, either pure or manufactured. Hardware comes from England and Germany; it is a very considerable article. Glassware almost exclusively from Germany. Real and false jewellery also from Germany. Delfware is imported by England.

Glass, which on account of the bad roads in Venezuela, cannot be transported but by a very few routes, is furnished, the common quality by Germany, and the fine qualities by France and England.

Furniture is imported by the Americans. It is imported in *pieces*, as a precaution against the difficult communications and the intensity of the heat.

Eatables arrive from America, Spain, and in small quantities from France.

Wine comes from Spain, America, and France. France exports to Venezuela the red wines of the Gironde in hogsheads or butts. The Spaniards and Americans furnish the sweet wines of Malaga and the red wines of Catalonia. The French wines of Languedoc are nearly analogous to those advantageously exported by the Catalonians. The trade of liqueurs is of some importance at Venezuela, and may yet be of much greater consequence; it is also a very good article for a cargo for navigation.

Soaps come almost exclusively from America; they find a market on account of their softness and low price.

Perfumes are almost exclusively from France.

Tanned goods are introduced by the French and Americans, the former bring skins and the latter the leather. This branch of importation has greatly diminished on account of the number of tan-houses established in the country.

Arms.—The low price of the German and Belgian weapons give them the priority, except rich weapons.

BRITISH CONSULAR RETURN OF THE TRADE OF VENEZUELA IN 1844-1845.

In comparing the value of the imports of the present year with the imports during the two previous years, there has been an increase of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, as respects 1843 and 1844; and a diminution of 2 6-7 per cent as respects 1840-1841, the year in which the amount of imports was greatest.

In the value of the imports from Great Britain, there has been an increase of 20 1-8 per cent as compared with the imports from thence in 1843-1844.

Their amount in 1843 and 1844, having been 203,764*l.*, and in 1844-1845, 244,773*l.*

In the general exports there has been a decrease of $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, as compared with the exports in 1843-1844, and of $28\frac{3}{4}$ per cent as compared with them in 1841-1842, the year in which the amount of exports was greatest.

As respects the exports to Great Britain there has been an increase in 1844-1845, of 14 7-10 per cent, the respective amounts being, in 1843-1844, 161,283*l.*, 1844-1845, 185,080*l.*

But there is a diminution of 1 1-8 per cent as respects 1842-1843, the year in which the exports to Great Britain were the greatest.

The statements hereafter furnish the particulars of the description and value of the principal articles of import and export, and of the amount of gold and silver coin imported and exported in 1844-1845.

Eight hundred and fourteen Venezuelan vessels, with a tonnage of 26,566 tons, entered the ports of the republic; and 1490 vessels, with a tonnage of 36,778 tons departed therefrom in 1844-1845; whilst 414 British and other foreign vessels, with a tonnage of 59,650 tons, entered, and 491 vessels, with a tonnage of 67,739 tons, departed therefrom during the same period.

Of the foreign vessels that entered fifty-six were British, with a tonnage of 9355 tons, and of those that departed, 119 were British, with a tonnage of 12,866 tons.

Of the total value of imports, say 793,877*l.*; 187,706*l.* were imported in Venezuelan vessels;

and 606,170*l.* in British and other foreign vessels ; and of the total value of exports say 894,745*l.* ; 177,339*l.* were exported in Venezuelan vessels, and 717,406*l.* in British and other foreign vessels.

The rate of duties on the amount of imports chargeable with a duty was, in 1844-1845, 37½ per cent, it having been 35½ per cent in 1843-1844, and 34½ per cent in 1842-1843.

The duties on exports have been taken off since the 11th of May, 1844.

The following are the rates of duties on amount of imports paid in 1844-1845 respectively by the under-mentioned countries, including in the calculation the duties termed "subsidiary," and a duty on imports charged on the entrance of vessels at "La Guairia," on amount of imports chargeable with a duty : Great Britain, 32 2-3 per cent; France, 32 4-5 per cent; United States 53 4-5 per cent.

On amount including goods admitted duty free: Great Britain, 29 7-8 per cent; France 27 1-3 per cent; United States, 34½ per cent.

The duties on warehousing of goods amounted in 1844-1845 to 825*l.*

The annexed statement, shows the amount collected for dues and charges on shipping during 1844-45, to have been 9303*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*

The minister of finance states in his report to congress that if the amount in 1845 of the national income, 89¾ per cent was derived from duties on customs ; such duties; therefore, bear the proportion of 71½ per cent to the total amount (to the total amount) of national and municipal income of the year.

Notwithstanding the high rate of duties levied on imports into Venezuela, there is a very general clamour for their increase, and for the establishment of commercial restrictions and prohibitions upon the delusive assumption that such measures are the only panaceas, excepting that of raising another Anglo-Venezuelan loan, which can be adopted by congress and the country, for relieving the embarrassments of the necessitous and indebted agriculturists, and for affording, according to the Venezuelan popular theory, the indispensable protection to native industry.

This retrocession from the sounder notions of commercial and financial policy, hitherto prevalent in Venezuela, is the result of the excitement engendered by the establishment at Caraccas in 1843, by two or three of the principal proprietors and directors of the so-called "National Bank," of a periodical designated as *El Promotor*, in which, with a view to personal and party objects, the most subversive principles were set afloat, and the most inflammatory language was directed against foreigners, the doctrines of commercial freedom, and especially against the laws which afford the only real legal security for commercial and money transactions in Venezuela in respect of establishments and individuals, not like the national bank, clothed with the extraordinary powers and privileges of the Venezuelan fisc.

From the appearance of this mischievous paper to the present time, the nation has been designedly kept in a state of morbid irritability against, and distrust of, foreigners; and, as a consequence, the illiberal Spanish colonial system of prohibition and restrictions has been openly upheld and advocated by the several contending parties, as the surest means of acquiring political capital.

Owing to this feverish and diseased state of the public mind, to the tardiness and want of confidence in a faithful administration of justice, and to the consequent increasing disregard and callousness of debtors concerning their character and commercial credit, the trade of the country is not generally considered, by competent judges, to be in a sound or healthy condition ; and notwithstanding the increase of British imports, the trade is, in fact, fast dwindling into a species of retail trade in the hands of petty dealers.

Two long established commercial houses lately wound up their affairs. On doing this they declared "We have held on for a long time in doubt, in the hope of some favourable change, but, alas, to end in disappointment."

Neither of these commercial houses have been replaced by the establishment of other British firms.

The president, General Soublette is fully sensible of the erroneous views taken by his countryman in respect to the question of commercial freedom, and the suicidal measures, by the adoption of which they vainly flatter themselves Venezuela will be enabled to place her trade and finances upon a sound and healthy footing.

The value of foreign merchandise imported into Venezuela in 1844-1845, in transit for New Granada, amounted to 132,216 dollars 97 cents, equal to 21,154*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*; of which amount 118,432 dollars 71 cents, equal to 18,949*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*, was introduced through the port of Macaybo, and 13,784 dollars 26 cents, equal to 2205*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.*, through that of Angostura.

The amount of British merchandise through the two ports was as follows: through Maracaybo 47,339 dollars 26 cents, equal to 7574*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* ; through Angostura 4928 dollars 42 cents, equal to 788*l.* 7*s.* ; total, 52,267 dollars 68 cents, equal to 8362*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.*

Caraccas, February 16, 1846.

Value, as per Manifest, of Goods, including Gold and Silver Coin and Bullion, Imported into Venezuela from all Countries, respectively, during the Financial Year ending the 30th of June, 1845.—Exchange Six Dollars and a Quarter to the Pound Sterling.

N A T I O N S.	Amount charged with Specific Duty.	Duty ad Valorem.	Duty free.	GRAND TOTAL.	Amount of Duties.		
					Ordinary.	Extraordinary.	GRAND TOTAL.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Great Britain and her colonies	1,354,171	43,330	132,329	1,529,830	398,371	39,837	438,208
Denmark and her colonies, St. Thomas..	643,828	32,878	196,475	873,181	210,363	21,034	231,397
United States.....	582,264	35,797	345,660	963,721	289,740	28,974	318,714
Germany, Bremen, and Hamburg.....	595,118	59,016	6,894	641,028	172,348	17,235	189,583
France, and French West Indian colonies	256,394	32,926	57,469	346,789	82,691	8,269	90,960
Holland and her colonies, Curacoa.....	229,517	13,698	87,172	330,387	83,726	8,373	92,099
Spain and her colonies.....	199,627	3,886	30,279	233,792	72,852	7,285	80,137
Mexico.....	..	40	2	42	12	1	13
New Granada and Goajira.....	75	..	..	75	71	7	78
Sardinia.....	29,502	3,299	3,590	36,391	11,547	1,155	12,702
Countries not named in official returns..	485	2	2	2,439	217	21	238
Amount of confiscations.....	3,767	170	170	4,052	1,508	151	1,659
Total dollars.....	3,894,748	205,042	861,937	4,961,727	1,323,446	132,342	1,455,788
Total £ sterling	623,160	32,807	137,910	793,877	211,751	21,175	232,926

Comparison of value of imports, in 1843-1844.....	dollars. 4,408,890	£ 705,422	
" " " in 1844-1845.....	4,961,727	793,877	
Increase, in 1844-1845, 12½ per cent.....	552,837	88,455	
Comparison of amount of duties on imports chargeable with a duty, in 1843-1844	1,318,932	211,029	34½ per cent.
" " " " " in 1844-1845, in			
both cases, exclusive of 4 per cent on the amount.....	1,455,788	232,926	35½ per cent.
Increase, in 1844-1845, 10½ per cent	136,856	21,897	Increase in the amount of duty, 1 3-10 per cent.
Comparison of the value of Imports from Great Britain, in 1843-1844.....	1,273,520	203,764	
" " " " " in 1844-1845.....	1,529,830	244,773	
Increase, in 1844-1845, 20½ per cent.....	256,310	41,009	

Note A.—At La Guaira a duty of two per cent on amount of duties on imports is further collected, as a port-charge on "entrance of vessels;" but as this is in reality a duty on imports, and is not paid by the owner of the vessel, but by the importer, it is not included in the above statement.

In addition to the ordinary and extraordinary duties on imports, included in the treasury and custom-house returns under those denominations, two other duties on imports are collected; namely, 1st, a "subsidiary duty" of two per cent on the amount of those duties on imports at La Guayra, and of four per cent at all other parts: 2ndly, two per cent on amount of said duties on imports at La Guayra, collected as a port charge on the "entrance of vessels;" the two duties being together equal to four per cent on the amount of ordinary import duties with ten per cent additional, which, although termed an extraordinary duty, is, in fact, an ordinary duty, therefore the actual rate of duties on imports chargeable with a duty was, in 1844-1845, 37¼ per cent; it having been in 1843-1844, 35½ per cent.

CUSTOM HOUSE Value of Exports from Venezuela, including Gold and Silver Coin and Bullion during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845.—Exchange Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound Sterling.

C O U N T R I E S.	Amount.		Remarks.
	dollars.	£ sterling.	
Great Britain and British colonies.....	1,156,751		Subsequent to the 1st of July, 1844, the Duties on Exports have been taken off.
United States.....	1,376,596		
Denmark, and her colonies, St. Thomas.....	441,336		
Germany, Bremen, and Hamburg.....	701,685		
Spain and her colonies.....	1,012,747		
France, and French West Indian Colonies.....	477,494		
Holland and her colony, Curacao.....	268,135		
Mexico.....	84,554		
New Grenada and Goajira.....	6,000		
Hayti.....	540		
Sardinia.....	43,557		
Austria.....	22,000		
Various countries not mentioned in official returns.....	764		
Total.....	5,592,159	894,745	

COMPARISON of Amount of Exports.

	dollars.		£
In 1843, 1844.....	5,966,746	..	954,676
In 1844, 1845.....	5,592,159	..	894,745
Decrease in 1844-5, 6½ per cent	374,567	..	59,931

COMPARISON of the Value of Exports to Great Britain.

	dollars.		£
In 1843, 1844	1,008,023	..	161,283
In 1844, 1845.....	1,156,751	..	185,080
Increase in 1844-5 14 7-10 per cent	148,728	..	23,797

STATEMENT of the Description and Value, as per Manifest, of the different Articles of Foreign Manufacture imported into Venezuela during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845. Exchange Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound sterling.

ARTICLES.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Value.
	dollars.		dollars.		dollars. £ ster.
Account books, maps, music, drawings, &c.	4,620	Brought forward....	2,150,273	Brought forward....	3,343,310
Animals, live.....	1,876	Hats and bonnets.....	31,149	Silks	158,560
Barrels and casks, beer ...	18,846	Instruments of agriculture and art.....	16,187	Skins of animals.....	8,967
Books, printed.....	24,555	Jewellery, fine.....	13,895	Soap.....	110,813
Boots and shoes.....	6,197	Ditto, false.....	4,613	Silver, manufactured.....	255
Buttons.....	1,000	Lace.....	6,027	Stills.....	223
Carriages, carts, and wheelbarrows.....	12,882	Lamps.....	1,623	Spirits.....	63,862
Cider.....	2,348	Leeches.....	1,950	Thread.....	37,816
Clothing, ready-made	10,711	Linens.....	811,941	Tiles and bricks.....	2,922
Coal	620	Medicines and drugs.....	31,475	Timber.....	7,912
Cordage.....	10,020	Mills, sugar.....	7,510	Tobacco	60,801
Cottons	1,533,151	Musical instruments.....	5,521	Tortoiseshell and ivory....	3,683
Earthenware	30,083	Ornaments for public buildings, churches, &c.....	3,270	Toys.....	1,606
Flour.....	228,705	Paint and paint-brushes ..	1,902	Walking-sticks.....	974
Furniture, house.....	13,629	Paper of all sorts.....	33,798	Wax.....	6,843
Glassware, fine	3,679	Perfumery	11,117	Wines	126,686
Ditto, common.....	26,528	Pictures, and picture-frames.....	2,524	Woollens	158,734
Glass plate.....	2,247	Pitch and tar	2,115	Watches.....	1,696
Gowns, artificial flowers, fans, &c.....	4,989	Printing-presses	2,672	Sundries*.....	6,595
Grain, seeds, and plants..	82,779	Provisions, groceries, &c., including oil and vinegar.....	201,506	Ditto, not specified in official returns.....	168,092
Gunpowder.....	5,207	Saddlery, harness, &c.....	2,242	Total.....	4,270,350
Hardware, and articles of iron.....	125,601			Foreign gold and silver coin.....	691,377
Carried forward....	2,150,273	Carried forward....	3,343,310	Grand Total.....	4,961,727
					793,877

* This item consists of confiture, pumps, playing cards, cut stone, spectacles, and steam-engines.

STATEMENT of the Total Quantity, Custom House average Valuation, and Total Value of Articles exported from Venezuela during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845. Exchange at Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound sterling.

E X P O R T S.	Quantity.	Value.		Total Value.	
		dls.	cts.	dollars.	£ sterling.
Animals, various.....No.	4,433	4	97½	22,052	
Bark of the mangrove-tree.....				470	
Cables, grass.....No.	286	5	20	1,487	
Cattle.....do.	17,661	9	95½	175,819	
Cheese.....hhds.	128,484	0	6½	8,023	
Chocolate.....do.	695	0	34¾	241	
Cigars and cigarettes.....No.	68,100	0	0 15-16	639	
Cocoa.....lbs.	7,571,170	0	14½	1,114,734	
Coffee.....do.	29,034,771	0	8 1-6	2,372,670	
Confiture.....				365	
Copper, old.....lbs.	9,602	0	10¾	1,028	
— ore.....do.	201,000	0	1	2,100	
Cotton.....do.	1,006,616	0	8¾	84,569	
Dividivi.....do.	982,600	0	1	9,826	
Donkeys.....No.	302	12	10½	3,655	
Drugs.....				500	
Earthenware.....				444	
Eggs, fowls.....				361	
Fish, salt.....lbs.	372,980	0	3 1-9	11,586	
Fruits.....				4,636	
Goats.....No.	468	1	53	718	
Hammocks.....do.	83	5	56½	462	
Hats, straw.....do.	14,754	1	66¾	24,618	
Hides, ox.....do.	358,991	2	7	741,756	
— of other animals.....do.	463,219	0	32½	150,504	
Gum.....				965	
Horns of cattle.....No.	138,557	0	1½	2,173	
Horses and mares.....do.	286	69	32½	19,831	
Indian corn, and other grain.....				16,004	
Indigo.....hhds.	295,546	0	97½	288,277	
Mear, salt.....do.	130,960	0	6½	8,526	
Mules.....No.	1,372	84	40½	115,800	
Oils, vegetable.....				8,011	
— fish.....				1,817	
Palm.....				50,332	
Plantains.....boat loads	27,717	1	81½	6,194	
Poultry.....No.	18,056	0	34½	692	
Rope, grass.....				823	
Sarsaparilla.....hhds.	4,940	0	16¾	1,571	
Sheep.....No.	1,025	1	53½	514	
Snuff.....bottles	506	1	1½	434	
Spirits.....barrels	30	14	47	3,660	
Starch.....lbs.	105,000	0	3¾	14,517	
Sugar, common brown, called "Papelon".....				44,815	
— muscovado, and a small quantity clayed, unrefined.....hhds.	814,351	0	5½	2,698	
Sundry articles not specified in official returns.....				13,756	
Timber for building.....				279	
Tallow.....lbs.	5,120	0	5½	72,675	
Tobacco.....do.	560,058	0	12¾	2,693	
Turtles.....				3,806	
Vegetables.....				28,566	
Woods, dye.....				11,486	
Exports from the port of Cumarebo not detailed in official returns.....					
The above are Venezuelan productions.					
Total.....				5,454,778	872,764
Foreign gold and silver coin.....				137,381	21,981
Grand Total.....				5,592,159	894,745

COMPARISON of the Value of Imports and Exports in 1844, 1845.

	dollars.	£
Total value of Exports in 1844, 1845.....	5,592,159	894,745
" " Imports in 1844, 1845.....	4,961,727	793,876
Excess of Exports over Imports, or 12½ per cent.	630,432	100,869

The prices per quantity are never given in the Venezuelan official statements, it has, therefore, been necessary to make the calculation.

STATEMENT of the Value of Gold and Silver in coin and bullion Imported into and Exported from Venezuela during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845. Exchange Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound sterling.

ARTICLES.	Amount Imported.		Amount Exported.	
	dollars.	£	dollars.	£
Gold coin				
Silver coin				
Total.....	691,377	110,620	137,381	21,981
			691,377	110,620
Excess of imports over exports in 1844, 1845.....			553,996	88,639
Description of coin not classified.				

GROSS Return of Venezuelan, and of British and Foreign Vessels that arrived at, and departed from, the principal Ports within the Consulate-general of Venezuela during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.		DEPARTED.	
	Vessels.	Venezuela.	Vessels.	Venezuela.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
Venezuela.....	814	26,566	1490	36,778
British and other foreign countries..	414	59,650	491	67,739
	1228	86,216	1981	104,517

STATEMENT of the several Amounts collected in the Ports of Venezuela during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845, for Dues and Charges on Shipping, so far as it has been possible to ascertain the same. Exchange Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound sterling.

DUES AND CHARGES.	Value.			DUES AND CHARGES.	Value.			
	dols.	cts.	£		dols.	cts.	£	s. d
Tonnage dues.....	23,382	51		Hospital dues at Angostura irregularly levied by a municipal regulation...	Not yet published.			
Anchorage.....	6,996	04		Mole Dues at Puerto Cabello of 1 dol. equal to 3s. 2½d. a day during period of vessels loading and discharging; also a contribution of a quarter per cent on the value of all imports and exports applied to construction and conservation of mole, aqueduct, and bathing-houses; both contributions unfairly imposed by foreign merchants.....				
Entrance of vessels.....	3,669	62		Amount of dues to health officers, captains of ports, government interpreters, and stamps for licence to discharge and load.....	Not ascertained. Not stated or accounted for in any official statement.			
Watering.....	4,747	62						
Clearance of vessels.....	486	90			9,303 14 5			
Passports on embarkation of passengers.....	2,705	00						
Light-houses.....	7,085	01						
Pilotage collected only at Angostura and Maracaybo.....	4,052	18						
Mole dues at Maracaybo and other ports irregularly levied by municipal regulations.....	5,023	41						
Bills of health at Maracaybo irregularly levied by the governor.....	Not stated.							
	58,148	29						

TRADE OF LA GUAYRA.

LA GUAYRA, the principal sea-port town of Venezuela, is situated in the province of Caraccas, on the eastern shore of a small bay, and contains about 7000 inhabitants.

Vessels cast anchor in an open roadstead, exposed to the north-east wind, at a distance of from a quarter to half a mile from the wharf, where the holding ground is secure at a depth of from eight to twenty fathoms.

Pilots are not required on the entrance of vessels into this port.

The rise and fall of the tide is scarcely perceptible.

Stone, for ballast, is procured with difficulty, at a cost of from eight dollars (17. 5s. 7½d.), to twelve dollars (17. 18s. 4½d.), per barge-load of five tons.

In front of the custom-house there is a covered wharf about 300 feet in length for the embarkation and debarkation of passengers and goods, and close by on the beach is a fountain of fresh and wholesome water for the supply of vessels.

Cargoes of vessels are shipped or discharged by means of lighters carrying from four to four and a half tons.

The charge for lighterage is four dollars (12s. 9½d.) per load.

The cost of discharging is generally paid by the shipper, but for which he is reimbursed by charging ten per cent on the amount of freight, under the denomination of *primage*, five per cent of which is in fact for lighterage. The expense of loading is usually defrayed by the exporter.

Foreign merchandise or native produce is conveyed by porters between the wharf and merchants' stores, at an average charge of one rial or 4½d. a load; or, when a package is of such a weight or bulk as to require more than one porter, 9 cents, or 3½d. is paid to each man per journey.

As there is no lazaretto at this port for passengers or goods, vessels having to perform quarantine, anchor two or three miles to leeward of the town, and to avoid being placed in quarantine, a vessel must be provided with a bill of health, duly certified by a Venezuelan consul, or consul of a friendly nation.

Numerous accidents having occurred, both to passengers and goods, upon landing and embarking at the wharf, owing to the heavy ground swell in the roadstead, the municipality of this town, entered into a contract with an American engineer, to construct a breakwater, together with a small lighthouse at the point, and a building as an office for the captain of the port, for the sum of 275,000 dollars, 44,000*l*.

This breakwater was commenced in March, 1844, and is now rapidly drawing towards completion; but owing to an accumulation of sand on the inner side, washed in by the currents, unfortunately, it has not answered the expectations of the authorities or the engineer, and fresh works will have to be constructed to render it of any material or practical benefit to trade.

Small coasting craft of from about twelve to eighteen tons' burden, are able to anchor within its influence.

No reduction in the charge for the shipment or debarkation of goods has as yet been effected.

Since May, 1839, a duty of two per cent, to be calculated on the amount of tariff duties, with ten per cent addition on imports into La Guayra, has been collected under the denomination of a port charge on entrance of vessels, over and above the port due of 7 cents, 2⅔*d*., per Venezuelan ton on entrance. This is virtually a duty on imports, being paid by the owners or consignees of merchandise.

The proceeds are applicable to local purposes, and, at present, are exclusively devoted to the cost of the construction of this breakwater.

During the Venezuelan financial year, ending the 30th of June, 1844, this duty amounted to 14,442 dollars = 231*l*.

A lighthouse due of 6 cents, 2¼*d*., is recovered from national and foreign merchant vessels entering the port of La Guayra from a foreign port with or without cargo; but it is not levied on vessels arriving from another port of the republic.

With the proceeds of this fund it is intended to erect a lighthouse on the Roques; a dangerous group of rocks about seventy-eight miles to the northward of La Guayra, on which many vessels proceeding from St. Thomas and Puerto Rico, and to the United States and Europe, have been wrecked.

During the financial year, ending the 30th of June, 1844, the proceeds of this duty in La Guayra, amounted to 2140 dollars, 342*l*.

CARACCAS, the capital of the republic and of the province of the same name, situated about 3000 feet above the level of the sea, is separated from the port of La Guayra by a range of mountains rising abruptly from the shore, the principal communication between which is, at present, by means of a mule road of about five Columbian leagues in length, of 6666 feet each league, and 3000 feet at the highest point above the plain upon which Caraccas stands, or 6000 feet above the sea.

A carriage road between the capital and this port for some years in the course of construction, has been opened since the commencement of the present year.

It is about two leagues longer than the old or mule road; and before it can be rendered safe and convenient for the general purposes of traffic, a large outlay and some years will be required.

Owing to its present defective state, little, or no reduction has hitherto occurred with respect to the ordinary charges for carriage by mules, since it has been opened.

Articles of furniture, or packages of such a bulk or weight, as previous to its opening could only be conveyed to Caraccas on the shoulders of men at an enormous cost, are now taken up at a very much lower rate; and also bales of goods, crates of glass and earthenware, &c., instead of requiring to be broken up and repacked in smaller parcels for conveyance by mules, are now carried up entire in carts.

Of late years the charge for the conveyance of cargoes has averaged about 1 dollar 50 cents, 4s. 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per mule-load of two quintals = to about 203lbs. English; but at the present time, a bag of coffee, weighing a quintal, or equal to half a cargo, is brought from Caraccas for 31 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents = 1s.

Besides the before-mentioned import duty of two per cent, a subsidiary duty of two per cent on imports, calculated in the same manner on goods imported into La Guayra, has been levied since July, 1839; and the proceeds of which have been exclusively applied to the construction of the carriage-road between Caraccas and La Guayra.

The proceeds of this duty during the financial year 1843-1844, amounted to 14,442 dollars = 2311*l*.

Besides these amounts, the sum of 40,000 dollars = 6400*l*. out of the national revenue has, since October, 1842, been applied to the construction of this road.

There are two daily posts between La Guayra and Caraccas, from the latter other posts are periodically despatched to different parts of the interior.

A private subscription packet sails weekly between La Guayra and Puerto Cabello.

Packets with mails for the West Indies and England sail from La Guayra on the 7th and 21st of each month; whilst the mails from the West Indies and England are usually delivered at La Guayra on the 12th and 28th of each month, or on the twenty-sixth day after the packet's departure from Southampton.

Both the National Bank of Venezuela (so called) and the Caraccas branch of the British Colonial Bank, have agents at La Guayra.

Weights and Measures.—123 lbs. (libras) Spanish = 125 lbs. avoirdupois; 98,392 ditto = 100 ditto; 25 ditto = 1 arroba; 100 ditto = 1 quintal; 110 ditto = 1 fanega; 108 yards (varas) Spanish = 100 yards English; 3 feet (pies) Spanish = 1 vara; 12 inches (pulgadas) Spanish = 1 foot.

The English gallon is used for the admeasurement of liquids. Four gallons are considered as one arroba. Five wine-bottles as one gallon.

Tonnage.—About 140 Venezuelan tons = 100 tons English; about 112 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto = 100 tons United States; and about 134 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto = 100 tons French.

The total amount of port dues on vessels entering and clearing with cargo from La Guayra may be estimated at 4s. 0 $\frac{4}{5}$ d. per ton, British admeasurement.

IMPORTS into La Guayra during the Years 1840 to 1844 inclusive.

NATIONS.	1840	1841	1842	1843	1844	Grand Total of the Five Years.	Annual Ave- rage of the Five Years.
	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Great Britain, and her colonies.....	265,380	139,671	162,596	150,000	93,879	811,526	162,305
Venezuela.....	..	..	34,508	14,631	26,914	76,053	25,351
United States.....	115,942	119,465	84,595	69,505	81,468	370,975	94,195
Spain and her colonies.....	44,536	41,933	41,069	26,337	30,687	184,562	36,912
Hamburg	130,269	116,729	47,062	45,555	43,098	382,713	76,543
Bremen	75,705	36,342	24,678	25,098	29,126	190,949	38,190
France and her colonies	54,504	77,549	67,065	59,230	25,499	283,847	56,769
Denmark and her colonies ...	53,515	60,928	12,580	24,768	18,507	170,298	34,060
Sardinia.....	..	..	..	..	6,644	6,644	6,644
Holland and her colonies.....	4,635	9,111	14,205	5,862	2,482	36,295	7,259
Oldenburg.....	..	..	..	..	1,949	1,949	1,949
Hayti.....	..	308	..	..	..	308	308
Total.....	744,486	602,036	488,358	420,986	360,253	2,616,119	523,224

STATISTICS OF VENEZUELA.

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EXPORTS.

NATIONS.	1840	1841	1842	1843	1844	Grand Total.	Annual Average.
	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.
Great Britain and her colonies.....	£ 65,781	£ 14,724	£ 34,295	£ 60,236	£ 50,014	£ 225,050	£ 45,010
Venezuela	..	..	..	8,864	11,229	51,713	17,238
United States.....	..	..	31,620	125,424	96,958	522,093	104,419
Spain and her colonies.....	73,941	120,063	105,702	77,554	90,240	588,431	117,686
Hamburg	103,426	149,574	167,647	36,750	32,579	227,814	45,563
Bremen.....	61,424	66,944	30,117	17,643	10,866	114,498	23,899
France and her colonies.....	24,546	22,909	38,534	53,921	33,726	324,480	64,896
Denmark and her colonies ..	86,829	105,653	44,351	25,467	10,837	74,512	14,902
Sardinia	14,003	9,855	14,350	..	6,618	16,839	5,613
Holland and her colonies.....	3,574	6,647	..	968	138	9,939	1,988
Oldenburg.....	2,113	4,682	2,040	..	3,397	3,397	3,397
Austria.....	13,934	..	..	..	..	13,934	13,934
Hayti	..	82	..	..	..	82	82
Total.....	449,571	501,138	468,656	406,815	346,602	2,172,782	434,556

ARRIVALS during the Five Years ending December 31, 1844.

NATIONS.	1840			1841			1842		
	Vessels.	Venezuelan	Crews.	Vessel.	Venezuelan	Crews.	Vessels.	Venezuelan	Crews.
	number.	tons.	number.	number.	tons.	number.	number.	tons.	number.
British.....	25	5,441	298	12	2,229	137	31	4,589	307
Venezuelan	..	..	..	..	..	..	25	3,057	..
United States.....	66	9,713	..	85	11,595	..	80	11,551	..
Spanish.....	26	3,721	..	39	5,299	..	49	6,444	..
Hamburg	12	2,810	..	14	2,766	..	8	1,660	..
Bremen.....	8	2,168	..	7	1,936	..	7	1,810	..
French.....	13	2,699	..	26	5,098	..	27	4,434	..
Danish.....	17	2,032	..	31	3,365	..	6	700	..
Sardinian.....	..	..	..	1	207	..	..	..	..
Dutch.....	9	756	..	19	1,611	..	20	1,148	..
Oldenburg.....	..	..	..	1	48	..	..	..	..
Haytian.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total.....	178	29,340	..	235	34,154	..	253	35,395	..

ARRIVALS—(continued).

NATIONS.	1843			1844			Grand Total.			Annual Average.		
	Ves-sels.	Vene-zuelan	Crews.	Ves-sels.	Vene-zuelan	Crews.	Ves-sels.	Vene-zuelan	Crews for Two Years.	Ves-sels.	Vene-zuelan	Crews for Two Years.
	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.
British	25	3,494	212	34	7,842	347	127	23,595	559	25	4,719	280
Venezuelan.....	11	1,192	88	24	2,330	210	60	6,579	298	20	2,193	149
United States..	73	9,744	479	71	11,023	548	375	53,626	1027	75	10,725	513
Spanish.....	39	5,226	399	59	9,074	662	212	29,764	1061	42	5,953	531
Hamburg	12	2,920	138	18	4,258	192	64	14,414	330	13	2,883	165
Bremen.....	8	1,712	69	9	2,306	95	39	9,932	164	8	1,986	182
French.....	21	3,384	241	22	4,554	254	111	20,171	495	22	4,034	247
Danish.....	8	1,114	97	11	2,271	109	73	9,482	206	15	1,896	103
Sardinian.....	..	..	..	2	314	24	3	521	24	1	260	24
Dutch.....	13	856	125	14	518	106	75	4,889	231	15	978	116
Oldenburg.....	..	..	..	1	158	6	1	158	6	1	158	6
Haytian.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	48	..	1	48	..
Total..	210	29,642	1848	265	44,648	2553	1411	173,179	4401	228	34,636	2200

Note.—The total number of crews of British vessels that arrived at La Guayra during the Quinquennium, ending the 31st of December, 1844, was 1301, and the yearly average 260.

100 tons. { British register.
United States ditto
French admeasurement. } are equal to about { 140
112½
134½ } tons, Venezuelan admeasurement.

The returns for the years 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843, only include vessels arriving from British and foreign ports; but the return for 1844 includes all vessels that arrived at La Guayra from other ports of the republic, at which they may have discharged a part of their inward cargoes, as well as those arriving from British or foreign ports. The following statement gives the number of arrivals, with the amount of Venezuelan tonnage and number of crews respectively, from British ports only, during the year 1844: Twenty-five vessels of the burden of 5779 Venezuelan tons, and manned by 261 seamen.

The returns, No. 2, of British and foreign trade, transmitted annually from this vice-consulate to her majesty's legation at Caraccas, and from which this statement has been compiled, do not contain any particulars relating to the number of arrivals of Venezuelan vessels, the amount of tonnage, or the number of their crews during the two years, ending the 31st of December, 1841, as such details have been principally included under the head of "Danish" shipping; vessels under the Venezuelan flag having been chiefly employed during that period in the trade between St. Thomas and this port.

DEPARTURES, ending the 31st of December, 1844.

NATIONS.	1840			1841			1842		
	Vessels.	Venezuelan	Crews.	Vessels.	Venezuelan	Crews.	Vessels.	Venezuelan	Crews.
	number.	tons.	number.	number.	tons.	number.	number.	tons.	number.
British	25	5,441	298	12	2,229	137	29	4,268	
Venezuelan	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	2,193	
United States	57	8,301	..	70	10,157	..	80	11,663	
Spanish	34	4,970	..	49	6,536	..	52	6,961	
Hamburg	15	3,985	..	21	4,502	..	10	2,288	
Bremen	6	1,773	..	5	1,387	..	8	2,273	
French	22	3,684	..	32	6,125	..	24	4,230	
Danish	13	1,251	..	16	1,621	..	6	888	
Sardinian	1	126	..	1	207	..			
Dutch	8	595	..	13	1,092	..	17	1,197	
Oldenburg									
Austrian	3	651	..						
Haytian	..	..	..	1	48	..			
Total	184	30,777	..	220	33,904	..	243	35,961	

DEPARTURES—(continued).

NATIONS.	1843			1844			Grand Total.			Annual Average.		
	Ves-	Vene-	Crews.	Ves-	Vene-	Crews.	Ves-	Vene-	Crews	Ves-	Vene-	Crews
	sels.	zuelan		sels.	zuelan		sels.	zuelan	for Two	sels.	zuelan	for Two
	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	Years.	No.	tons.	No.
British	27	3,739	223	34	7,862	348	127	23,539	571	25	4,708	286
Venezuelan	11	1,192	88	18	1,739	153	46	5,124	241	15	1,708	120
United States ...	73	9,744	497	68	10,599	526	384	50,464	1005	70	10,093	503
Spanish	36	4,879	368	56	8,618	632	227	31,964	1000	45	6,393	500
Hamburg	12	2,920	138	16	3,723	169	74	17,418	307	15	3,483	153
Bremen	8	1,712	69	9	2,306	95	36	9,451	164	7	1,890	82
French	21	3,384	241	19	3,840	215	118	21,263	456	24	4,253	228
Danish	8	1,114	97	10	2,058	99	53	6,932	196	11	1,386	98
Sardinian	..	..	..	2	314	24	4	647	24	1	215	24
Dutch	13	856	125	14	518	106	65	4,258	231	13	852	115
Oldenburg	..	..	..	1	158	6	1	158	6	1	158	6
Austrian	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	651	..	3	651	..
Haytian	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	48	..	1	48	..
Total	209	29,540	1828	247	41,735	2,373	1,103	171,917	4201	221	34,383	2100

Note.—The total number of crews of British vessels that departed from La Guayra during the Quinquennium ending the 31st of December, 1844, was 1206, and the yearly average was 251.

100 tons. { British register.
United States ditto.
French admeasurement. } are equal to about { 140
112½
134½ } tons, Venezuelan admeasurement.

The returns for the years 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843, only include vessels departing to British and foreign ports; but the return for 1844 includes all vessels that departed from La Guayra to other ports of the republic, at which they may have taken in a part of their outward cargoes, as well as those proceeding to a British or foreign port. The following statement gives the number of departures of vessels, and the amount of Venezuelan tonnage to British ports, only during the year 1844: Twenty-five vessels of the burden of 5779 Venezuelan tons.

The returns, No. 2, of British and foreign trade, transmitted annually from this vice-consulate to her majesty's Legation at Caraccas, and from which this statement has been compiled, do not contain any particulars relating to the number of departures of Venezuelan vessels, the amount of tonnage, or the number of their crews, during the two years, ending the 31st of December, 1841, as such details have been principally included under the head of "Danish" shipping; vessels sailing under the Venezuelan flag having been chiefly employed during that period in the trade between St. Thomas and this port.

OBSERVATIONS.—The import and export trade of Great Britain is almost exclusively confined to the port of Liverpool.

It is supposed that about a quarter of the total amount of British goods imported into La Guayra, are on account of German houses; they also import linens and baizes, but not to so large an amount as cottons.

British capital enters into these speculations.

The principal British mercantile firms of La Guayra are in the practice of charging on consignments of goods from twelve to twelve and a half per cent, for commission, guarantee on sales, warehouse, collection, &c., and returns of proceeds are made at ten months.

IMPORT Trade of La Guayra, in British and Foreign Vessels, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1845, compared with the Imports during the Year 1844. The Exchange has been calculated at the rate of Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound Sterling.

NATIONS.	Total Invoice Value of Cargoes in		Increase.	Decrease.	Value of Cargoes.		Total Amount of Duties.	Excess of Imports.	Specie, not included in Value of Imports for 1845.
	1844 Inclusive of Specie.	1845 Exclusive of Specie.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Admitted Duty Free.	On which Duty was Paid.	Sterling.	Sterling.	Sterling.
	Sterling.	Sterling.			Sterling.	Sterling.			
British	£ 93,879	£ 158,563	£ 64,684	£ ..	£ 6,781	£ 151,782	£ 46,668	£ 93,933	£ 10,624
Venezuelan....	26,914	29,546	2,632	..	3,479	26,067	7,773	16,095	
United States..	81,468	105,290	23,822	..	36,194	69,096	36,130	57,006	
French.....	25,499	55,954	30,455	..	8,654	47,300	13,576	6,139	
Hamburg.....	43,098	41,407	..	1,691	675	40,732	12,635	10,576	
Spanish	30,687	41,328	10,641	..	7,666	33,662	12,465		4,182
Danish.....	18,507	24,404	5,897	..	195	24,209	7,038	2,837	1,955
Bremen.....	29,126	17,970	..	11,156	38	17,932	5,739	9,735	
Swedish	..	4,217	4,217	..	1	4,216	1,061	344	
Sardinian.....	6,644	3,611	..	3,033	452	3,159	1,193		
Dutch.....	2,482	3,222	740	..	582	2,640	1,094	3,097	
New Granada..	..	499	499	..	491	8	5	499	
Santo Domingo	..	101	101	..	4	97	26	101	
Oldenburg	1,949	..	..	1,949					
Lubeck.....									
Total.....	360,253	486,112	143,688	17,829	65,212	420,900	145,403	200,362	16,761
Total invoice value of imports in 1844, inclusive of specie.....		360,253	Excess of Invoice Value of Exports over Imports in 1845.....					96,965	
Increase in the invoice value of imports in 1845, or 35 per cent exclusive of specie...		125,859	Ditto, ditto, of Imports over Exports in 1845.....					103,397	

EXPORT Trade of La Guayra to Foreign Countries. The Exchange has been calculated at the rate of Six Dollars and a quarter to the Pound Sterling.

NATIONS.	Invoice Value of Cargoes in		Increase.	Decrease.
	1844	1845		
	£	£	£	£
British.....	50,014	64,630	14,616	
Venezuelan.....	11,229	13,451	2,222	
United States.....	96,958	48,284	..	48,674
French.....	33,726	49,815	16,089	
Hamburg.....	32,579	30,831	..	1,748
Spanish.....	90,240	134,308	44,068	
Danish.....	10,837	21,567	10,730	
Bremen.....	10,866	8,235	..	2,631
Swedish.....	..	3,873	3,873	
Sardinian.....	6,618	3,924	..	2,694
Dutch.....	138	125	..	13
Oldenburg.....	3,397	..	..	3,397
Lubeck.....	..	3,672	3,672	
Total.....	346,602	382,715	95,270	59,157

Total Invoice Value of Exports, in 1845.....£382,715

" " " in 1844..... 346,602, inclusive of specie.

Increase in the Value of Exports, in 1845..... 36,113, or 10½ per cent, exclusive of specie.

TONNAGE, and Value of the Cargoes of Vessels, which Arrived at, and Departed from, the Port of Maracaybo, during the Year 1838.

COUNTRIES.	ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value.
			£			£
British	3	300	5,088	3	300	2,473
French.....	3	582	1,529	2	373	2,698
Venezuelan	38	4091	31,455	41	4416	33,576
United States	15	1827	11,344	16	1926	27,797
Dutch	8	362	3,942	8	362	4,388
New Granadian	2	73	93	2	73	565
Total.....	69	7235	53,451	72	7480	71,497

REMARK.—Exchange, six dollars per pound sterling.

PRODUCE and Animals Exported from the Province of Guayana, Port of Angostura, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1844.

UNDER WHAT FLAG EXPORTED.	TO WHAT PORTS CARRIED.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Horses.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	Dried Hides.	Skins of other Animals.	Cattle.	Mules.	Tonguin Beans.	Tobacco.	Sarsaparilla.	Cheese.	Asses.	Mahogany.		Cedar Boards.	Hammocks.	Balsam Capivi.	Cattle Horns.	Grass Cables.	Dried Beef.	Invoice Value in Pound Sterling.					
		lbs.	lbs.	No.	lbs.	lbs.	No.	No.	No.	No.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	No.	No.	Boards.	Logs.	No.	No.	gall.	No.	No.	arr.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
British.....	Hamburg.....	7,800	700	..	..	200	10,000	1157	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,635	7 6	3,635	7 6		
British.....	British colonies.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1925	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,908	8 0	3,908	8 0		
Venezuelan....	British colonies.....	..	2,143	44	..	..	..	..	4052	204	..	..	..	2000	24	..	270	4	..	10	..	..	..	10,568	8 0	10,568	8 0		
French.....	France and colonies	12,043	2,800	..	10,571	..	7,130	37	553	..	..	..	200	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	23	..	..	5,940	6 4	14,476	10 0		
Venezuelan....	French colonies.....	..	700	1	..	..	..	22	742	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,626	10 9	7,566	17 1		
Spanish.....	Havannah.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	925	..	445	0 0	445	0 0		
Danish.....	Bremen.....	19,875	..	..	16,536	..	173	437	..	..	1200	280,270	..	..	..	..	97	10	100	4	..	575	..	5,417	6 4	5,417	6 4		
Venezuelan....	St. Thomas.....	1,500	2,211	..	4,650	..	8,898	..	..	..	..	300	..	2500	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,947	9 0	3,947	9 0		
Bremen.....	Bremen.....	5,500	..	..	..	29,100	9,265	191	..	..	1088	784,239	..	..	..	..	82	40	..	..	560	..	..	16,769	8 5	9,364	15 4		
Venezuelan....	Bremen.....	10,080	..	..	..	..	2,494	..	..	..	..	56,213	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,992	9 0	1,992	9 0		
Hamburg.....	Hamburg.....	35,070	..	..	..	25,009	10,000	1189	..	..	..	446,136	..	..	..	..	29	..	..	..	4000	..	..	11,155	6 6	18,761	17 5		
United States..	New York.....	..	500	..	..	17,400	7,755	629	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,782	3 2	11,155	6 6		
Venezuelan....	New York.....	..	6,590	..	62,682	82,897	32,722	6161	..	..	1478	..	..	..	..	..	500	..	..	..	..	..	..	24,166	7 0	24,166	7 0		
Total.....		91,868	15,644	45	94,439	154,606	88,437	9823	7272	204	3766	1,568,028	200	4500	24	83	949	100	18	583	4575	40	925	..	..	26,948	10 2	92,354	10 0

The voyage up the Orinoco to Angostura is made, on an average, in from twenty to twenty-five days; they descend in from five to fifteen days. During the year 1844 the trade of Angostura shows a vast decrease as compared with the previous four years, which averaged in imports 68,160*l.* sterling, whereas in 1844 this has fallen to 22,793*l.* The decrease may be attributed to the following causes, viz.:

The extensive stock of goods on hand from the importations of previous years, which were infinitely more than the consumption of the country required.

The salutary change of reduced and more limited credits introduced into mercantile transactions.

The average value of exports during the last four years was 100,203*l.* sterling. In 1844 it was 92,354*l.*

British manufactures are here more in demand than those of any other country. The exportation of cattle to the British colonies is considerably on the increase.

VALUE of Merchandise Imported at the Port of Angostura from various Countries, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1844.

UNDER WHAT FLAG IMPORTED.	FROM WHAT COUNTRY AND PORTS BROUGHT.	Invoice Value of Cargoes in Pound Sterling.			
		£	s.	d.	£ s. d.
British.....	British colonies.....	685	8	0	5,313 14 7
Venezuelan.....	British colonies.....	4628	6	7	
French.....	France and colonies.....	1440	19	0	1,676 2 3
Venezuelan.....	French colonies.....	235	3	3	
Danish.....	Denmark and St. Thomas.....	663	6	0	6,165 10 5
Venezuelan.....	Island of St. Thomas.....	5502	4	5	
United States.....	United States.....	96	9	0	4,546 12 0
Venezuelan.....	New York.....	4450	3	0	
Hamburg.....	Hamburg.....	2273	5	0	2,273 5 0
Bremen.....	Bremen.....	1574	8	0	
Venezuelan.....	Bremen.....	1244	1	9	2,818 9 9
Grand total.....					
					22,793 14 0

GROSS RETURN of the British and Foreign Trade at the Port of Maracaybo during the Year ending December 31, 1844.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value of Cargo.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value of Cargo.
	No.	tons.	No.	£	No.	tons.	No.	£
British.....	14	2083	110	16,089	14	2032	115	13,496
French.....	1	173	..	1,884	1	173	..	16
Spanish.....								
Venezuelan.....	12	1360	..	27,899	28	2476	..	22,043
United States.....	21	3207	..	28,214	22	3484	..	44,082
Dutch.....	7	558	..	2,458	9	600	..	2,223
Danish.....	1	131	..	11	1	131	..	517
Sardinian.....								
Bremen.....	1	185	..	2,790	1	185	..	2,515
Hamburg.....								
Mexican.....	..	..	..	..	1	68	..	1,646
New Granadian.....	1	120	..	42	1	38	..	57
Total.....	58	7817	110	79,387	78	9187	115	86,595

PORTO CABELLO.—There arrived at this port, in 1844, from various parts, thirty-two British vessels, 5455 tons, 337 men; invoice value of cargoes, 337,778*l.*: value exported by these vessels, 44,733*l.* The latter consisted chiefly of copper ore, coffee, some cotton, and cattle. There was a falling off this year in the amount of imports, 6645*l.*; and in the exports, of 12,401*l.* of copper ore, the last shipment was made in June, since which the mines, for the present, have been abandoned. The increase in the exportation of coffee, is about 600 tons. The falling off in the export of cotton is nearly 6000 quintals; the low prices in Europe, and the contributions levied on its export for Venezuelan local objects, check the cultivation. The same remark applies to indigo.

Articles exported from Porto Cabello, in 1844 :—copper ore, 505 tons; coffee, 11,032 quintals; cotton, 3759 packs of 100 lbs.; fustic, 539 tons; sugar (Muscovado), 471 quintals; hides, 1919; bark, forty-four tons; lignumvitæ, ten tons; dividivi, ten tons; cedar logs, seventy-one tons.

CHAPTER VII.

CUSTOMS' REGULATIONS—TARIFF OF DUTIES—FINANCES OF VENEZUELA.

Ports of Import and Export.

ARTICLE I. The following ports are hereby declared to be open for the purposes of importation and of exportation :

Angostura in the province of Guayana; Cumana, and Carupano in the province of Cumana; Barcelona in the province of Barcelona; La Guayra in the province of Caracas; Puerto Cabello in the province of Carabobo; La Vela in the province of Coro; and Maracaybo in the province of Maracaybo.

II. The undermentioned ports are hereby declared to be open, only for the importation of goods for their own consumption, and for exportation: Pampatar and Juan Greigo in the province of Margarita, and Guayra and Maturin in the province of Cumana.

III. The sub-custom-house established at the shipping station of Gaza is hereby opened for the purposes of exportations to foreign countries, and at this station may be despatched all vessels desirous of loading at places from the Port of Angostura into the said station and on either side of the Orinoco.

IV. The custom-houses which are limited to despatch goods for the consumption of the port at which they are situated, may not grant permits for the conveyance of goods to other places.

§ The custom-house of Guayra is hereby excepted from this provision; and on the contrary, is empowered to grant permits for the conveyance of foreign goods to places not open to trade which communicate by rivers with the Gulf of Paria.

V. The executive government is hereby empowered to continue open for the purposes of exportations any of the ports which it may think proper of those that are closed by the present law.

VI. The law of the 22nd of April, 1839, respecting the ports open to trade in Venezuela is hereby repealed.

TARIFF OF CUSTOMS' DUTIES.

The modifications made in 1841, and still in force in the customs' tariff of Venezuela, were unfavourable to commerce. The basis of duty on goods not admitted free, is an *ad valorem* duty of thirty per cent: the importation of salt, cocoa, sugar, and molasses, is prohibited; the importation of spirits, extracted from sugar-cane, unless imported in bottles, is likewise prohibited. There are many articles subject to a specific duty; besides the import duty of thirty per cent, there is also levied ten per cent, calculated upon the amount of the duties, which raises the duty, *de facto*, to thirty-three per cent.

All duties on exports from the ports of the republic cease.

CLASS I. The following articles are admitted free from duty:—

Bricks, bran, moulds for sugar mills, living animals of all kinds, ploughs, peas, rice, oats, scarfs for the use of churches, drills, casks and barrels, pumps of wood or iron for irrigation, coal, carts or waggons, wheelbarrows, surplices and other garments for priests, collections or books of music or drawings, and paper prepared for music or drawings, columns of all kinds for buildings, iron cooking stoves, jackets, staves, juniper berries, baggage of passengers, statues of all sorts, copper or iron sugar or still boilers, Dutch ovens, beans, engravings, mathematical or other scientific instruments, boats of iron or wood set up or in pieces, lentils, parts of sugar mills, printed books and maps, files, Indian corn, apples, cotton gins, machines for dredging, mining, spinning, weaving, and shelling corn, steam engines, gold and silver, pans of copper, brass, or zinc, printing paper, potatoes, carriage and cart wheels, seeds, brushes.

CLASS II.—The following articles pay rates of three per cent, *ad valorem*; gold and silver table services, and generally all stuffs, works, and ornaments made of these precious metals; diamonds, bracelets, &c., &c., of gold, set with precious stones; watch keys of gold or silver, medals and medallions, jewellery, fine, whether set or plain, and rings of gold.

CLASS III.—Articles which pay rates of six per cent, *ad valorem*; viz., barometers and thermometers (four per cent), silk blonde, brocade of gold and silver, and thread of ditto, and cotton lace, embroidery, &c.

CLASS IV.—Articles which pay rates of thirty per cent, *ad valorem*; viz., perfumery of all sorts and fine oils for the toilet, false jewellery and bronze ornaments, &c., works of metal generally, scented waters and essences; alabasters, and works of; chandeliers of glass and metal, canes and sticks of reed, bamboo, &c., with or without mountings on handles, tassels of silk, or other materials; frocks and shirts, made up or in pieces; sofas and couches, carts and playthings for children, ribbons and tapes, &c., not otherwise rated, copper goods not otherwise enumerated, head-dresses and caps, window curtains and blinds, frames for glasses and pictures, plates of metal for furniture, writing desks, inkstands, &c., buttons of bone or wood, &c., musical instruments not otherwise enumerated (surgical and mathematical instruments, twenty per cent), lamps of all kinds, tombstones; books, plain; fine earthenware, watch keys, ordinary woods not otherwise enumerated; all kinds of furniture not otherwise enumerated; razors, ornaments for churches, manufactures of human hair, works of lead not otherwise enumerated, clocks, seals, scissors, dyes, sword-scabbards; glass, plain; and *all articles not specially enumerated* in this tariff.

CLASS V.—Specific Rates of Duties on the leading Articles of British Manufactures and Trade, at the rate of 100 cents, equal to 4s. sterling.

ARTICLES.	Cents.	ARTICLES.	Cents.
	number.		number.
I. HARDWARES.			
Steel in bars.....quintal	128	Counterpanes, embroideredeach	100
Stills.....lb.	6	" stampeddo.	50
Copper and brass wiredo.	8	Tickings up to four quarters in width (proportionate duty on greater widths)....vara	3
Scales of copper and brasseach	50	Dimities (according to width).....do.	5 to 6
iron.....do.	30	Ordinary cottons.....do.	3
Coffee-pots of brass, &c.do.	50	Cloths, called "Domestics" (according to width).....vara	1½ to 2½
tin.....do.	30	Blankets.....doz.	600
plated.....do.	100	Muslins, plain or printedvara	5 to 8
Padlocks of iron.....doz.	50	" fine and embroidered.....do.	12 to 15
Candlesticks plated, &c.pair	100	Handkerchiefs (according to width).....doz.	50 to 150
not plated.....do.	50	Tape, &c., up to three inches in width (proportionate duty on greater width).....vara	1
common.....do.	25	III. WOOLLENS.	
Iron, pig.....lb.	1	Camlets (barragan) up to four quarters (proportionate duties on greater width).... vara	12
Tin plates, in packages containing 225 sheets each	250	Baizes.....do.	20 to 25
Lancets.....doz.	25	Stockings.....doz.	150
Copper in barsquintal	300	Socks.....do.	50
Copper oredo.	200	Drawers and shirts.....each	200
Coffee mills.....each	25	Carpets, two varas in width.....do.	100
Cotton mills, and those for grinding maize, &c. do.	150	Cassimeres.....vara	25
Knives, ordinary.....doz.	37	Merinos.....do.	15
Vessels (pots and kettles) of copper.....lb.	10	Casinettes, &c. (proportionate duty for greater widths.)do.	12
" " " brass.....do.	8	Ribbons, bands, or tapes of wool, up to one inch in width100 varas	15
" " " iron.....quintal	180	" " three inches width....do.	45
Lead, raw.....do.	150	Cords or girdleslb.	30
Pens of iron, steel, or copper.....gross.	75	Waistcoats.....each	100
Presses for stamping.....each	400	Flannel, up to four quarters wide, (and so on in proportion to width).....vara	5
Anvils.....quintal	150	Blanketsdoz.	300
II. COTTON GOODS.		Yarn.....lb.	37
Cotton yarn, and cotton for wicks of candles, and cordage of cotton.....lb.	18	Handkerchiefs, small (large subject to duty in proportion).....doz.	125
Mixed goods of cotton and linen, up to four quarters in width.....vara	5	IV. SILK.	
" " " five ditto....do.	10	Sashes of silk.....	50
Cottons, plain (and proportionate duty on those of greater width).....do.	2½	Shirts of ditto.....	100
Cotton stockings.....doz.	37 to 100	Ribbons of silk and satin of half an inch in width.....100 varas	33
Drawers and waistcoats.....each	50		
" mixed with linen.....do.	100		
Coverlets for tables.....do.	75		

(continued.)

ARTICLES.		Cents.	ARTICLES.		Cents.
	number.			number.	
Ribbons of silk and satin, up to three quarters of an inch 100 varas	48		Cinnamon, fine lb.	75	
" " up to one inch do.	62		" common do.	6	
" " above one inch do.	150		Wax bleached do.	8	
" of gauze, up to two inches in width			" unbleached do.	4	
vara	3		Locks, &c. of copper doz.	300	
" " up to three inches wide. do.	4½		" iron do.	150	
" " up to five inches do.	9		Strings for musical instruments gross	75	
Silk, corded, for embroidering lb.	150		Bridle bits of steel each	100	
Silk neckerchiefs, small doz.	250		" plated do.	150	
" large do.	400		Fruits, dried, not specially rated lb.	4	
Shawls of silk and wool, up to four quarters			Guns each	150	
vara	20		Flour (wheat) in barrels of from seven to eight arrobas do.	400	
Caps of silk doz.	120		Maize, barley, and potato flour free.		
Gloves of silk do.	50		Hats, beaver 100		
Silk stuffs, or silk partially mixed with cotton, up to two-thirds wide, and gauzes of silk, (proportionate duties for greater widths)			" silk 50		
vara	25		Glue lb.	4	
Silk or guaze, &c., handkerchiefs doz.	250		Marble, rough do.	18	
Tulle, lace, up to four quarters in width (proportionate duties for greater widths) .. vara	50		Mortars, of marble, glass, or alabaster each	50	
Silk, sewing lb.	100		" of wood do.	25	
V. LINENS.			Wafers lb.	100	
Cambrics (batistes), four quarters in width (proportionate duties on greater widths)			Tinsel do.	50	
vara	25		Paper hangings 100 varas	100	
" other kinds (ditto ditto) do.	20		" writing ream	100	
Linen, called white Irish do.	7 to 10		" ruled do.	200	
" striped, mixed with cotton, called No. 2, three quarters wide (proportionate duties on greater widths) do.	3½		Whetstones doz.	100	
Handkerchiefs, fine, of cambric, with borders, or embroidered doz.	250		Grinding hones each	100	
Linen yarn lb.	25		Skins, not otherwise rated doz.	150	
VI. MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.			Slates for houses 100	200	
Copper wire, plated lb.	8		Pens gross	75	
" plain do.	5		Sago lb.	4	
Iron wire, plated do.	6		Tallow quintal	200	
" plain do.	4		" prepared do.	400	
Fish, viz.: codfish do.	2½		Cider, in bottles doz.	80	
" herrings, fresh or salted do.	3		" in casks arroba	50	
" sardines in oil do.	6		Tobacco (Havanna) lb.	10	
" salmon do.	5		" " cigars 1000	300	
" other kinds not specified do.	4		" cigars from Virginia, St. Domingo, or Porto Rico do.	200	
Whalebone do.	2		" same quality in leaf quintal	600	
			Snuff lb.	50	
			Ink, writing do.	20	
			Tea do.	50	
			Wine, viz.: burgundy, champagne, madeira, or port, in bottles doz.	300	
			" ditto, ditto, ditto, in casks arroba	200	
			Vinegar, in bottles doz.	100	
			" in casks arroba	50	

Boots for men, the pair, one dollar; boots for boys, the pair, seventy-five cents; pitch, the quintal, one dollar; beer, in bottles, the dozen, eighty cents; beer, in other vessels, arroba, fifty cents; brooms, of all sorts, the dozen, fifty cents; pepper, the quintal, three dollars; slates, each, six cents; white pine boards, the 1000 feet, four dollars; pitch pine boards, the 1000 feet, six dollars; shoes for men, the pair, thirty cents; shoes for women, the pair, twenty cents; shoes for children, the pair, six cents.

FINANCES OF VENEZUELA.*

	dollars	cts.	£	s.	d.
Home department	1,073,748	55	=	171,799	15 5
Finance department	1,150,656	00	=	184,184	19 3
Foreign affairs	32,400	00	=	5,184	0 0
War	575,359	29	=	92,057	10 0
Navy	91,291	48	=	14,606	12 10

Total expenditure . 2,923,455 32 = 467,752 17 6

The actual expenditure of the republic, in 1846-1847, will not greatly exceed the official estimates of its income for the same period; namely, 2,076,202 dollars 68 cents, equal to 332,192*l.* 8*s.* 7*d.*

In these estimates are included the sum of 220,000 dollars, equal to 35,200*l.*, for

* The exchanges have been calculated at the rate of six dollars and a quarter to the pound sterling.

payment of a year's dividend on the Anglo-Venezuelan loan ; and furthermore, 20,000 dollars, equal to 3200*l.*, for the payment of a year's dividend on the new Venezuelan bonds, issued in part payment of Mr. M'Intosh's claim.

The usual power to apply surplus revenue to the redemption of the foreign debt, of which the executive government was deprived last year, has not been granted to it by the present law ; and looking at the increasing jealousy and prejudice against foreigners in Venezuela, I doubt much if this power will be again conferred upon the executive.

However, the usual amount for the gradual redemption and payment of the dividends on the home debt, namely 152,850 dollars, equal to 24,456*l.*, has been allowed ; and, as many members of congress are holders of the stock of this debt, there is no likelihood of the power or means for its redemption being diminished or withdrawn by congress.

The revenue from customs' duty, the chief resources, and the mine revenues, are estimated as equal to the expenditure, as Venezuela has hitherto maintained her public credit.

CHAPTER VIII.

MARITIME TRADE OF THE REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR, THROUGH ITS ONLY PORT OF GUAYAQUIL, FOR THE YEAR ENDING THE 31ST OF DEC., 1844.

At this port the whole trade of the year has been less than that of the preceding, owing to the continuance of the yellow fever, and to a failure in the crop of cocoa.

The fever kept away from the port many of the traders of the interior, where the chief part of the merchandise imported is consumed, and to the same cause may be attributed the smaller number of British and other foreign vessels that have entered, as besides the risk of the epidemic, they are subjected to quarantine in the other ports of the coast when proceeding from this ; national vessels, therefore (the crews of which having undergone the disease are not supposed to be any longer exposed to it), have had a larger portion of the trade of last year.

Of the other exports it is only in cotton that there is much difference.

	lbs.	£
1843—Cocoa exported.....	15,338,970	value 170,433
1844 " "	8,565,500	" 105,788
1843—Cotton exported.....	80,000	" 1,520
1844 " "	256,550	" 4,618

NAVIGATION.

N A T I O N S.	E N T E R E D.			D E P A R T E D.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Value.	Vessels.	Value.	
	number.	number.	£ s.	number.	£	s.
1843, Ecuadorian	95	2,401	49,622 0	95	23,706	0
„ British.....	10	2,441	39,130 4	10	43,938	3
„ Other foreign.....	88	9,794	129,871 0	88	179,788	0
Total.....	193	14,656	218,263 4	193	247,432	3
1844, Ecuadorian.....	89	4,128	68,502 0	89	50,641	0
„ British.....	2	365	7,321 6	2	8,862	2
„ Other foreign	76	10,225	123,320 0	76	137,409	0
Total.....	167	14,718	209,103 6	167	196,194	2

Of the merchandise imported during the last year there has been a falling off in European manufactures, principally of the finer qualities of cotton, and woollen, and of silks, owing to the continuance of the *mourning* which the people have been kept in by

the ravages of the epidemic, but the importation of liquors and articles of consumption for the table (chiefly Spanish) have been unprecedented.

It was decreed, in 1845, to augment and encourage the ship-building establishment at Guayaquil, by exempting all vessels built there from tonnage and anchorage dues, and the partial reduction of the duties on merchandise imported by such vessels. Foreign vessels to pay four reals, or about two shillings per ton; and every vessel of 50 tons, 8 dollars; from 50 to 100 tons, 14 dollars; from 100 to 150 tons, 16 dollars; from 150 to 200 tons, 20 dollars; from 200 to 250 tons, 22 dollars; from 250 to 300 tons, 24 dollars; from 300 to 400 tons, 26 dollars; from 400 to 500 tons, 28 dollars; above 500 tons for every 100 tons, 2 dollars. Value of a dollar about 4s. 3d.

CHAPTER IX.

STATISTICS OF PERU.

WE are unable to bring forward any regular account of the statistics of Peru. The uncertain, ignorant, anarchical character of the government, has prevented any systematic returns being made; notwithstanding that such returns are insisted upon being prepared by the republican constitution of the state: it is not, however surprising, that this constitutional law should, like the constitution itself, become a nullity. A people which could have endured the absolutism of a Gamara as president, is certainly not yet intelligently educated for self-government, nor for an appreciation of a comprehension of true civil liberty, or of sound commercial and fiscal legislation.

The effects of such an unprepared state for self-government, have been a course of pernicious administration, in regard to national industry and trade.

President Gamara established monopolies, and constantly interfered with the regular course of labour, enterprise, and trade.

He caused the shops and trades to cease their occupations, while his national guards, as he called them, were drilling; in order that those who did not belong to that body, especially foreigners, might be deprived of profiting by the hours when the national guards were acting as soldiers.

The coin was debased by alloy in various degrees. Foreigners, and especially British merchants, have suffered greatly by this debased coin. Exclusive of this, forged coin is prevalent; and valueless base metal is abundantly circulated.

False coin has even been issued, as is well known, from the public mints, as well as by private forgers.

Monopolies of the Guano trade, saltpetre, tobacco, salt, &c., were favourite schemes adopted by Gamara, and unfortunately since he has ceased to rule, a more enlightened spirit does not appear to direct the administration.

One person obtained a monopoly of the exclusive export of copper bars from

the mines of Lima. Foreigners were by a decree prohibited from fishing on the Peruvian coasts, under the penalty of confiscating their vessels.

By a decree dated the 29th of July, 1840, guilds of trades were established, to be composed of all individuals who shall exercise in Lima any craft or manufacturing trade; the object of the formation of these guilds was by compelling foreign artizans who may exercise any craft or trade in Lima, to become members of a guild, to subject them, under the plea of municipal regulations, to the same *forced loans* and *military exactions*, and requisitions to which the native members of such guilds are respectively subjected.

On the 14th of August, 1841, the government of Peru granted to Mr. William Wheelwright, for a period of ten years, the exclusive privilege to navigate vessels propelled by steam, or by any other mechanical power, along the coasts and in the ports of Peru.

The time for the duration of this privilege is to be counted from the period when any of Mr. Wheelwright's steam-vessels arrived in the Pacific; and of which the *Peru* actually arrived at the Chilian port of Talcahuano, on the 21st of September the same year; another, the *Chile*, arrived on the 5th of October. Both vessels entered Valparaiso on the 15th of that same month, and one of these, the *Peru*, arrived at Callao on the 3rd of the following month of November.—(See Pacific Steam Navigation hereafter.)

The government of Bolivia also addressed an order, under date of the 15th of October, to the governor of the littoral province of La Mar, directing him to facilitate, by all means in his power, the despatch of the steam vessels at the only port of Bolivia, La Mar or Cobija, and to allow of pontoons being thereat established, free of all duties, for the deposit of coals.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF PERU.

In order to show the progress or decline of trade in Peru, we introduce the following

RETURN of the Value, free on board at Cadiz, of Spanish and Foreign Productions imported into Peru in each Year from 1781 to 1795, both inclusive.—Calculated at the Exchange of 48d. per Dollar.

Y E A R S.	Value of Spanish Produce.			Value of Foreign Productions.			Total Value.		
	dollars cts.	£	s. d.	dollars cts.	£	s. d.	dollars cts.	£	s. d.
1781	111,952 7	22,990	7 6	309,230 4	61,846	2 0	424,183 3	84,836	13 6
1782	566,218 1	113,243	12 6	638,435 3	126,687	1 6	1,199,653 4	239,930	14 0
1783	695,295 7	139,059	3 6	1,049,343 4	209,869	14 0	1,744,644 3	348,928	17 6
1784	1,020,434 1	204,086	16 6	2,073,530 4	415,706	2 0	3,093,964 5	618,792	18 6
1785	2,318,448 1	463,689	12 6	3,727,267 4	745,453	10 0	6,045,715 5	1,209,143	2 6
1786	6,136,067 4	1,227,213	10 0	7,630,681 7	1,526,136	7 6	13,766,749 3	2,753,349	17 6
1787	3,870,200 7	774,040	3 6	2,911,898 1	582,379	12 6	6,792,099 1	1,358,419	16 6
1788	1,557,904 0	311,580	16 0	1,194,066 7	238,815	7 6	2,751,967 1	550,393	8 6
1789	1,209,196 5	241,839	6 6	1,460,226 3	292,045	5 6	2,669,423 0	533,884	12 0
1790	2,297,962 4	459,592	9 0	2,465,499 2	493,099	17 0	4,763,461 6	952,692	7 0
1791	1,957,545 7½	391,509	3 9	2,226,310 1	443,262	0 6	4,183,856 0½	836,771	4 3
1792	2,147,970 3	429,594	1 6	2,508,513 7½	501,702	15 9	4,656,484 2½	931,296	17 3
1793	2,809,457 3½	561,891	9 9	3,163,822 3½	632,764	9 9	5,973,279 7	1,194,655	19 6
1794	1,969,645 5½	393,929	2 9	1,663,594 6½	332,718	19 3	3,633,240 4	726,648	2 0
1795	1,688,751 5½	337,750	6 9	1,412,239 0½	282,447	16 3	3,100,990 6	620,198	3 0
Total.....	30,360,044 6	6,072,004	15 0	34,434,658 7	6,886,928	3 6	64,779,707 5	12,959,934	13 6
Annual Average Amount }	2,024,003 0	404,800	12 0	229,644 0	466,462	4 0	4,319,980 0	863,995	16 0

NOTE.—In the amount of importations of foreign goods is included the amount of goods imported from China and the Philippine Islands

EXPORTS.

RETURN of the Value, free on board at Callao, and Amount of Money and other Productions of Spanish America, exported from Callao in each Year from 1781 to 1795 both inclusive.—Exchange 48d. per dollar.

YEARS.	Amount of Money.			Value of other Productions.			Total Value.		
	dollars	cts.	£ s. d.	dollars	cts.	£ s. d.	dollars	cts.	£ s. d.
1781									
1782									
1783	443,306	0	88,661 4 0	117,766	7	23,553 7 6	561,067	5	112,213 10 6
1784	16,152,916	4	3,230,583 6 0	968,290	2	193,658 1 0	17,121,206	6	3,424,245 7 0
1785	7,144,325	2	1,428,865 1 0	732,587	4	146,517 10 0	7,877,912	6	1,575,582 11 0
1786	8,285,659	7	1,657,131 17 6	882,807	1	176,561 4 6	9,168,467	0	1,833,693 8 0
1787	4,518,246	3	903,649 5 6	906,022	0	181,204 8 0	5,424,268	3	1,084,853 13 6
1788	5,463,973	1	1,092,794 12 6	579,160	2	115,832 1 0	6,043,133	3	1,208,626 13 6
1789	2,449,945	6	489,989 3 0	523,080	0	104,616 0 0	2,972,575	6	594,515 3 0
1790	5,220,387	2	1,044,077 9 0	448,095	1	89,619 0 6	5,668,482	3	1,133,696 9 6
1791	4,962,698	5½	992,539 14 9	736,891	7½	147,378 7 10½	5,699,590	5½	1,139,918 2 7½
1792	8,285,840	4½	1,657,168 2 1½	955,111	2½	191,022 5 3	9,240,951	6½	1,848,190 7 4½
1793	4,560,318	3	912,063 13 6	1,643,130	6	328,626 3 0	6,203,449	1	1,240,689 16 6
1794	5,047,814	5½	1,009,562 18 7½	498,659	6	99,731 19 0	5,546,474	3½	1,109,294 17 10½
1795	6,460,323	3½	1,292,064 13 10½	162,952	0	32,590 8 0	6,623,275	3½	1,324,655 1 10½
Total	78,995,760	7	15,799,145 3 6	9,154,550	7	1,830,907 19 6	88,150,849	6	17,630,169 3 0
Annual Average Amount }	5,266,384	0	1,053,276 12 0	610,304	0	122,660 0 0	5,876,723	0	1,175,344 12 0

NOTE.—In the annual amount of the exports is included the amount of the money exported to China and the Philippine Islands; and also the amount of the money exported on account of the royal treasury. On account of the war, neither money, nor produce, was exported to Europe from 1779 to 1782, both inclusive; and only a very inconsiderable amount in 1783; which will account for the large amount in 1784. Subsequent to the year 1793, shipments of coca and bark were effected direct from Guayaquil to Cadiz, which will account for the falling off in the amount of produce exported from Peru during the years 1794 and 1795.

AN Approximate Calculation of the Value of European, United States, and Asiatic Produce and Merchandise Imported into Peru and Chili, in 1837.

COUNTRIES WHENCE IMPORTED.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.					
	Peru.		Chile.		Peru and Chile.	
	dollars	£	dollars	£	dollars	£
Great Britain.....	4,500,000	900,000	3,500,000	700,000	8,000,000	1,600,000
France.....	650,000	130,000	550,000	110,000	1,200,000	240,000
Germany, including merchandise of Russia, Holland, and Belgium.....	350,000	70,000	400,000	80,000	750,000	150,000
Italy.....	150,000	30,000	50,000	10,000	200,000	40,000
Spain, and her dominions.....	300,000	60,000	200,000	40,000	500,000	100,000
United States.....	1,100,000	220,000	1,000,000	200,000	2,100,000	420,000
" (from Canton and Manilla)	270,000	54,000	230,000	46,000	500,000	100,000
Total.....	7,320,000	1,464,000	5,930,000	1,186,000	13,250,000	2,650,000
Distribution of the Imports into Peru between the States of North and South Peru.						
	North Peru.		South Peru.		North and South Peru.	
	dollars	£	dollars	£	dollars	£
Great Britain.....	3,000,000	600,000	1,500,000	300,000	4,500,000	900,000
France.....	400,000	80,000	250,000	50,000	650,000	130,000
Germany.....	275,000	55,000	75,000	15,000	350,000	70,000
Italy.....	100,000	20,000	50,000	10,000	150,000	30,000
Spain.....	250,000	50,000	50,000	10,000	300,000	60,000
United States.....	900,000	180,000	200,000	40,000	1,100,000	220,000
" (from Canton and Manilla)	220,000	44,000	50,000	10,000	270,000	54,000
Total.....	5,145,000	1,029,000	2,175,000	435,000	7,320,000	1,464,000

STATEMENT of the Total Value of Exports from Peru, distinguishing the Country of Production in the Year 1837.

DESCRIPTION.	Value of Exports.	
	dollars.	£
Produce of Peru or Bolivia exported to Europe and the United States.....	7,327,548	1,465,509
Produce of the States of the Equator, New Granada, and Central America, on account of European, Asiatic, and United States importations into Peru.....	259,820	51,964
Total.....	7,587,368	1,517,473

The number of yards of British bleached cottons imported,

	Yards.
In 1839, was	2,237,316
„ 1840, the number amounted to	5,406,302
Showing an increase in 1840, of	3,078,686

The number of yards of British gray cottons imported,

	Yards.
In 1839, was	2,482,000
„ 1840, it was only	1,719,548
Occasioning consequently a decrease in 1840 of	762,452

In United States manufacture, say gray cottons, or domestics, there were imported,

	Yards.
In 1839	1,323,340
„ 1840	2,087,568
Thereby showing a nett increase of	764,228

The increase, however, is only visible in bleached cottons, as the gray cottons imported from England and the United States together, amount nearly to the same quantity for the two years, viz.:

	1839.	1840.
British	2,482,000 yards	1,719,548 yards.
United States	1,323,340 „	2,087,568 „
Total	3,805,340 „	3,807,116 „

The total import of bleached and unbleached cottons, in 1839 and 1840, stands therefore thus :

	1839.	1840.
Bleached	2,327,316 yards	5,406,002 yards.
Gray	2,482,000 „	1,719,548 „
American	1,323,340 „	2,087,568 „
Total	6,132,656 „	9,213,118 „
Total increase in 1840 over 1839, 3,080,462 yards.		

	pieces.
In 1839, there were imported of printed cottons	78,174
„ 1840	188,151

Being an increase in 1840 109,977

Which, estimated at 3 dollars = 12s. a piece, makes the value of the increase 329,231 dollars = 65,986l. 4s.

Cotton drills imported from the United States were preferred to those of Great Britain.

Cotton prints.—The Americans are improving in this manufacture, though it is not likely that, for many years to come, they will be able to compete with the British manufacturer.

Linens from Ireland are daily increasing in consumption, and have nearly driven out of the market German and French *Bretagnes*.

The export of Alpaco wool has continued to increase.

	quintals.	£	£
In 1838, there were exported	4,593	at 5 =	22,965
„ 1839	8,555	„ 6 =	51,330
„ 1840	13,000	„ 5 =	65,000

The export of nitrate of soda is becoming more valuable as a return :—

	quintals.
In 1838, there were exported	73,510
„ 1839	113,780
„ 1840	176,876

The importations of quicksilver,

In 1839 were	2203 flasks.	1652 $\frac{1}{4}$ quintals.
„ 1840	4625 „	3491 $\frac{1}{4}$ „
Increase	2452 „	1839 „

Twenty-seven British vessels arrived in Peru during 1840, from ports in Great Britain :—7 direct to Arica from Liverpool ; 1 to Arica, calling first at Valparaiso, from Liverpool; 16 from Liverpool direct to Callao; 3 from London to Callao, calling first at Valparaiso—total 27. 34 arrived in 1839, and 14 only in 1838.

The value of British cargoes in 1840 was estimated at 1,190,000*l.*, from which deduct 60,000*l.* for remnants of cargoes sent on to Central America and Mexico, and there remains 1,130,000*l.*, to which must be added the sum of 500,000 dollars = 100,000*l.* value of British goods imported into Peru under the flags of all nations, from the deposit warehouses in Valparaiso, making the total amount of British imports consumed in Peru in 1840 = 6,150,000 dollars = 1,230,000*l.*

The tonnage of Peruvian shipping amounted at the latter end of 1840, to 6637 tons; and the number of Peruvian vessels to fifty-six, namely—two ships, two barques, fifteen brigs, sixteen brigantines, three cutters, two pilot-boats, sixteen schooners; fifty-six in all.

About one-half of their crews consist of English and American seamen, but by a Peruvian law, which is almost always evaded, no foreigner can be owner or master of a Peruvian vessel.

The capital employed in the import trade with Peru in 1840 was estimated at 6,900,000 dollars, equal to 1,380,000*l.*

The revenue of the Custom-house of Callao, on British imports, in 1840, yielded a gross sum of 1,200,000 dollars, equal to 240,000*l.*

The French, German, and American trade, had also considerably increased, as compared with its amount in 1838 and 1839.

Several French cargoes arrived, of which some were valuable, the direct importations from France, chiefly to French shopkeepers, have been greatly on the increase.

As an approximate calculation, the annual value of the French import trade in 1840, with Chile, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, west coast of New Granada, Central America, and Mexico, may be stated at 3,000,000 dollars, equal to 600,000*l.*

This calculation has been made by Mr. Perrin, the French consul at Cobija.

From Germany there have been no direct importations, still the business done, by shipments from Valparaiso to Callao of German manufactures, has been considerable, and two vessels direct to Valparaiso from Hamburg afterwards came down the coast.

The commerce of Spain continued gradually to increase, but a large proportion of the quicksilver imported into Peru passes through British hands on British account.

From the United States some valuable cargoes have been introduced in 1840.

The value of foreign goods imported from the deposit port of Callao into Guayaquil, are paid for in produce of the Ecuador, and in remittances in gold in coined ounces.

With Central America the trade to Callao may not, perhaps, have been so extensive during 1840 as in former years, which probably may have had its cause in the continued state of anarchy in that republic.

With Mexico, the trade of Peru had been at least equal in amount to that carried on in 1839, and no alteration appeared in the trade with California.

The Chilean trade with Peru has considerably increased, especially in the exchange of the productions of the two countries with each other.

From Asia no direct shipments to Peru have been made, but two cargoes from China arrived at Valparaiso towards the end of 1840, of which the whole assortments for Peru

were purchased at Valparaiso and sent down to Callao, and which promised to yield to the purchaser a fair profit.

RETURN of the Exports from Peru to Europe, and the United States, during the year ending the 31st of December, 1840.

NATURE OF EXPORTS.	Yearly Quantity.	Price per Weight or Quantity.		Total Value.	
	quintals.	dollars.	£ s.	dollars.	£ s.
Bark, from Arica	1633	38 per quintal.	7 12	62,054	12,410 16
— from Islay	1027	35 „	7 0	35,945	7,189 0
— different sorts				20,000	4,000 0
— from Payta					
Total				117,999	23,599 16

REMARKS.—Of the 1633 quintals of bark exported from Arica, 40 were for England; 960 ditto for France; 606 ditto for United States; 27 ditto for coast; total, 1633. Of the 1027 quintals exported from Islay, 691 quintals were for England; 191 ditto for France; 133 ditto for United States; 12 ditto for Hamburg; total, 1027.

NATURE OF EXPORTS.	Yearly Quantity.	Price per Weight or Quantity.		Total Value.	
	dollars.	dollars.	£ s.	dollars.	£ s.
Bullion and specie	4,097,746			4,097,746	819,549 16
Returns to England in bills for supplies to foreign ships of war, chiefly United States and to public agents	150,000			150,000	30,000 0
In addition to the foregoing, say bullion, specie, bills of exchange were remitted to Canton, United States, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and her colonies	3,563,000			3,563,000	712,600 0
Total	7,810,746			7,810,746	1,562,149 4
Chinchilla skins	dozen. 2,412	4 per dozen	0 16	9,648	1,929 12

Note.—Out of the above, during the year 1840, bullion and specie to the value of 3,736,512 dollars, equal to 747,302*l.* 8*s.* sterling, was exported from Peru to Great Britain, to which amount must be added the returns in bills and—say 30,000*l.*, thus making the total amount exported to Great Britain alone 777,302*l.* 8*s.* sterling.

Chinchilla, 2400 dozen for England; 12 ditto for France; total, 2412.

RETURN of the Exports from Peru to Europe and the United States, during the year ending 31st of December, 1840.

NATURE OF EXPORTS.	Yearly Quantity.	Price per Weight or Quantity.		Total Value.	
	quintals.	dollars.	£ s.	dollars.	£ s.
Bark		35 to 38 per qntl.	7 to 7 12	117,999	23,599 16
Bullion and specie	dollars. 4,097,746				
Returns to England in bills	150,000				
Also to countries, other than Great Britain, in specie, bullion, and bills	3,563,000				
	7,810,746			7,810,746	1,562,149 4
Chinchilla skins	dozens. 2,412	4 per dozen.	0 16	9,648	1,929 12
Copper ore	quintals. 11,690	9 per quintal.	1 16	105,210	21,042 0
— in bars	1,254	17 „	3 8	21,318	4,263 12
Total	12,944			126,528	25,305 12
Cotton	quintals 35,412	12.4 to 14	2 10 to 2 16	429,444	85,888 16
Hides—ox and cow	hides 7,795	2 to 24 per hide.	0 8 „ 0 10	19,090	3,818 0
Horns	none.				
Seal skins	do.				
Saltpetre—nitrate of soda	quintals 227,356	2 per quintal.	0 8	454,712	90,942 8
Sugar	none.				
Tin	quintals 4,996	13 „	2 12	64,948	12,989 12
Wool—vicuna	skins 1,213	6 cts. per skin	0 3	910	182 0
— sheep's	quintals 24,434	12 per quintal	2 8	295,208	59,041 12
— alpacha	do. 16,500	25 „	5 0	412,500	82,500 0

Note.—Of the above quantity of bark, 731 quintals were for England; 1151 ditto for France; 749 ditto for United States; total, 2631. The remaining quantity, amounting in value to 4000*l.*, is not given, but the difference was divided among the same countries.

Out of the above sums, bullion specie, to the value of 747,302*l.* 8*s.*, was exported from Peru to Great Britain; to which must be added the returns in bills, 30,000*l.*, thus making the total amount to Great Britain alone 777,302*l.* 8*s.* sterling, and the remainder 784,846*l.* 16*s.* sterling to other countries.

Chinchilla, 2400 dozen skins to England; 12 ditto to France; total, 2412 dozen.
 Copper ore, 9035 quintals to England; 2655 ditto to France; total, 11,690. Copper in bars, 1179 quintals to France; to Mediterranean; total, 1254.
 Cotton, 26,669 quintals to England; 4366 ditto to France; 2132 ditto to Genoa; 2174 ditto, uncleaned or 57 ditto in seed, to Great Britain and other countries.
 Hides, 7649 hides to England; 146 ditto to United States.
 Horns, none exported.
 Nitrate of soda, 176,876 quintals to England; 34,420 ditto to France; 6660 ditto to the United States; 6600 ditto to Hamburg; 2800 ditto to other countries.
 Sugar.—No sugar was exported to Europe during 1840; the markets on the coast having been found (principally Chile) more advantageous.
 Wool, vicuna, exported to Great Britain only. Ditto, sheep's, 23,731 quintals to England; 33 ditto to France; 145 ditto to United States; 525 ditto to Hamburg. Ditto, alpacha, exported to Great Britain only.
 Tin, from Bolivia, 347 quintals to England; 3626 ditto to France; 713 ditto to United States; 310 ditto to the coast.

VALUE of Exports from Peru to Europe and the United States, during the Years 1839 and 1840.

NATURE OF EXPORTS.	Value of Exports in 1839.		Value of Exports in 1840.	
	dollars. cents.	£ s.	dollars. cents.	£ s.
Bark.....	50,327 4	10,065 10	117,999 0	23,599 16
Bullion and specie.....	6,554,141 0	1,310,828 4	7,810,746 0	1,562,149 4
Chinchilla skins.....	11,016 0	2,203 4	9,648 0	1,929 12
Copper ore, barilla.....	91,089 0	18,217 16	105,210 0	21,042 0
Copper in bars.....	14,637 0	2,927 8	21,318 0	4,263 12
Cotton.....	371,800 2	74,360 1	429,444 0	85,888 16
Hides, ox and cow.....	6,859 0	1,371 16	19,090 0	3,818 0
Horns, cow.....	320 0	64 0		
Seal skins.....	556 4	111 6		
Saltpetre (nitrate of soda).....	299,152 0	59,830 8	454,712 0	90,942 8
Sugar.....	52,150 0	10,430 0		
Tin.....	61,867 0	12,373 8	64,948 0	12,989 12
Wool, vicuna.....	752 2	150 9	910 0	182 0
— sheep's.....	252,032 0	50,406 8	295,208 0	59,041 12
— alpacha.....	397,650 0	79,530 0	412,500 0	82,500 0
Total.....	8,164,349 4	1,632,869 18	9,741,733 0	1,948,346 12
Total value of exports in 1839.....			8,164,349 4	1,632,869 18
Total value of exports in 1840.....			9,741,733 0	1,948,346 12
Increase in 1840 over 1839.....			1,577,383 4	315,476 14

VALUE of Raw and Manufactured Produce Imported into Peru in 1840, from Europe, United States, and Asia, for home Consumption, for Warehousing in transit to Bolivia, and for Exportation along the western Coast of Spanish America, estimated at their Value in the Bonded Warehouses in Callao.

C O U N T R I E S.	Amount of Imports.	
	dollars.	£
Great Britain.....	6,150,000	1,230,000
France.....	1,450,000	290,000
United States.....	1,400,000	280,000
Canton and Manilla.....	300,000	60,000
Germany.....	300,000	60,000
Spain and Cuba.....	300,000	60,000
Italy.....	200,000	40,000
Total.....	10,100,000	2,020,000

IMPORT and Consumption of Guano in Great Britain, since its first introduction, in 1841.

Y E A R S.	Imports.	Consumption.	Stock.
	tons.	tons.	tons.
1841, Peruvian.....	1,880	500	1,380
1842, ".....	10,870	2,000	10,250
1843, ".....	2,230	5,500	6,980
1844, ".....	3,470	10,450	
Ditto, in the United Kingdom—African.....	16,000	16,000	
From 1st July, 1844, to 1st July, 1845.			
1845, Liverpool, African.....	86,983	34,901	52,082
" London ".....	24,800	9,950	14,850
" Glasgow ".....	36,669	14,669	22,000
" Other ports ".....	97,058	94,890	32,168
Total.....	245,510	124,410	121,100
1845, Liverpool, Peruvian.....	17,990	9,950	8,400
" London ".....	8,500	3,000	5,500
" Other ports (4 cargoes), do.....	1,200	650	550
Peruvian.....	27,690	131,240	14,450

ESTIMATE of the Annual Average Value of the Exports to all parts of the World, of Native Productions, including the Precious Metals, from Chile, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and from the Ports of New Granada, Central America, and Mexico, situated along the Pacific Coast.

C O U N T R I E S.	Average Annual Amount of Exports.	
	dollars.	£
Chile.....	6,000,000	1,200,000
Bolivia.....	2,000,000	400,000
Peru	8,000,000	1,600,000
Ecuador	1,500,000	300,000
New Granada.....	150,000	30,000
Central America.....	500,000	100,000
Mexico	4,000,000	800,000
Total.....	22,150,000	4,430,000

GROSS Return of British and Foreign Trade at the Port of Callao in 1841.

N A T I O N S.	A R R I V E D.				D E P A R T E D.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.
	number.	number.	number.	No means of ascertain- ing.	number.	number.	number.
British	68	19,585	1046		64	18,988	1014
British steamers.....	22	15,400	905		21	14,700	862
Peruvian.....	242	25,514	1620		246	26,343	1674
United States.....	47	16,155	1278		48	15,972	1312
French.....	31	7,927	483		31	7,895	481
Sardinian	11	2,656	167		10	2,443	159
Hamburguese.....	6	1,172	74		6	1,203	76
Spanish	5	1,019	79		5	1,053	82
Danish	4	1,302	69		3	1,032	53
Swedish	2	543	31		2	543	31
Austrian	3	1,176	57		3	1,176	57
Belgian	1	229	15		1	229	15
Chilian.....	31	5,058	314		29	4,832	279
Equatorian.....	11	1,596	105		11	1,602	107
New Granadian.....	8	694	71		7	561	60
Central American	3	609	47		4	923	69
Mexican	3	449	39		3	449	39
Total.....	498	101,084	6400		494	99,944	6370

Report on the Trade within the Consulate of Islay during the year 1843.

Imports.—This year presents the anomaly of a decrease in the value of British imports of 40,000*l.*, with an increase of nearly 4000 tons of shipping, entered in the port. The reason for this apparent inconsistency, was the diminished demand for British manufactures in the interior of Peru, on account of the continued revolutions and civil wars which have well nigh beggared all classes of society.

The *guano bubble*, that excited at first the cupidity of numerous speculators, having burst, has been the cause also of great and serious losses to several persons who entered into this trade, with hopes of realising speedily large fortunes.

The Peruvian government took advantage of their avidity, but the country has reaped no benefit whatever from this unexpected source of revenue, the whole preceeds having been swallowed up by a horde of government *employés*, jobbers, and peculators, in the capital.

The French trade has suffered equally, and is reduced to a very low ebb.

Exports.—The following is a sketch of the exports from Islay, in 1843, from official and private data.

Hard Dollars.—To England, 79,453 dollars. *Bars Pina, and Old Plate*, 20,980 marks, at 9 dollars, 260,820 dollars. *Gold*, 9870 marks, at 17 dollars, 167,790 dollars. *Peruvian Bark*, to England, 174 marks at 40 dollars, 6,960 dollars; to France, 234 marks, 9,360 dollars. *Sheep's Wool*, to England, 8,593 $\frac{1}{4}$ marks, at 10 dollars, 85,932.4 dollars; to France, 457 6-10 marks, 4,576 dollars; to Hamburg, 288 marks, 2,880 dollars. *Alpaca Wool*, to England, 9935 1-5 marks at 26 dollars, 258,315.1 dollars.

Vigonia Wool, to England, 6740 lbs., at 1 dollar, 6,740 dollars. *Vigonia Skins*, to England, 2120 skins, at 6 rials each, 1,590 dollars.—Total value, 884,416.5 dollars = at exchange, 48*d.* sterling, £176,883 6*s.* 6*d.*

BRITISH and Foreign Trade within the Consulate of Islay, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1844.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.			
	Vessels.	Crews.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Crews.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	number.	number.	tons.	£ s. d.	number.	number.	tons.	£ s. d.
British.....	25	442	8,248	181,823 0 6	22	398	7,246	130,348 5 0
Peruvian.....	3	28	383	2,313 0 0	3	28	383	1,632 12 0
French.....	5	75	1,359	7,642 18 0	4	62	1,156	6,054 12 0
American.....	2	30	593	241 12 0	2	30	593	none.
Sardinian.....	4	65	1,102	1,358 12 9	4	65	1,102	896 10 0
Hamburg.....	8	96	1,546	11,638 16 0	7	88	1,458	2,745 9 0
Danish.....	1	14	281	468 0 0	1	14	281	none.
Spanish.....	1	16	277	337 3 0	1	16	277	do.
Belgian.....	1	12	156	769 4 0	1	12	156	do.
Chilian.....	2	18	247	530 16 7	1	8	132	do.
Ecuador.....	1	12	150	851 5 0	1	12	150	do.
Total.....	53	608	14,342	207,974 7 10	47	733	12,934	141,677 8 0

TOLLS, Dues, and other Charges, on British and Peruvian Vessels, in the Port of Callao.

TOLLS, DUES, &c.	British Vessels.		Peruvian Vessels.	
	Currency.		Currency.	
	dlrs. rials.	£ s. d.	dlrs. rials.	£ s. d.
Tonnage dues.....per ton	0 2	0 1 0	} 2 0 per 50 tons.	0 8 0 per 50 tons.
Anchorage and cleaning the port.....per vessel	5 0	1 0 0		
Fees of captain of the port..do.	3 0	0 12 0		
Roll.....do.	1 0	0 4 0		
Health visit.....do.	1 0	0 4 0		
Licence for sailing.....do.	3 0	0 12 0	0 2	0 1 0
Stamped paper.....do.	0 2	0 1 0	0 2	0 1 0
Ballast duty.....per ton	0 2	0 1 0	0 1	0 0 6

Vouchers are given for all the above charges when required.

The advantages enjoyed by Peruvian vessels over those under the British flag, are:—

First.—The coasting trade.

Secondly.—In the whale-fishery. All whale-oil caught under the Peruvian flag is free of duty, while that caught under the British flag is subject to a duty of twenty-five per cent, on a valuation of three dollars and a half (fourteen shillings sterling) per 100lbs. on black fish oil; and to the same duty on a valuation of ten dollars (two pounds sterling) per 100lbs. of sperm oil.

Thirdly.—Gold exported is subject to a duty, under the Peruvian flag, of three-quarters per cent; under the British flag, of one per cent.

Fourthly.—Silver exported under the Peruvian flag, three and three-quarters per cent; under the British flag, five per cent.

Fifthly.—All merchandise coming direct from Europe, Asia, and North America, in a Peruvian vessel, is allowed to pay twenty per cent of the duty on her cargo in documents of the exterior and interior acknowledged national debt, if consigned to a foreign house, and thirty per cent, if consigned to a Peruvian house; whilst a British vessel bringing the same merchandise is allowed to pay ten per cent only of the duty on her cargo in such documents.—*Lima, February 1, 1845.*

CUSTOMS' REGULATIONS AND TARIFF OF PERU.

According to the law in force, Callao is declared to be the only port of unlimited deposit, both as respects classes of goods, their port of shipment, and the time of their deposit; but goods may be deposited at the ports of Arica and Paita, for the period of two years, and at Islay and Huanchaco for that of eight months.

It was enacted, by the law of 1840, that the retail trade, and the whole trade of the interior of the country, shall, after the expiration of eighteen months, be alone carried on by natives and citizens of Peru, whose names shall be duly inscribed in the *Commercial Register*.

That mercantile houses for the import of goods can alone be established at Arica, Tacna, Islay, Arequissa, Callao, Lima, Huanchaco, Trujillo, Payta, and Piura; *with the limitation, however, of selling only by invoices, or unopened packages, and on no account by single pieces.* This Article is a violation of the British treaty.

By the same law, the duty of five per cent actually on diamonds and precious stones, jewellery with stones or without, fine pearls, wrought gold and silver, and pocket watches, has been reduced to three and a half per cent; namely, three per cent to the state, and half per cent for ways and means.

The tax, called "*arbitrios*," or ways and means, is collected by the *consulado*, and is exclusively set apart for the payment of the *interest of the home debt*.

All *linen, woollen, and cotton goods*, are to pay twenty-five per cent, as follows: twenty-three per cent to the state, and two per cent for ways and means; and those which formerly payed thirty per cent, are now charged with a duty of thirty-five per cent and forty per cent; namely, thirty-two and thirty-six per cent to the state, and three and four per cent for ways and means.

Duty on playing-cards, 3 rials=1s. 6d. the dozen packs; namely 2½ rials to the state, and ½ rial for ways and means. Soap duty, 7 dollars=1l. 8s. the 100 lbs.; namely, 6 dollars=1l. 4s. to the state, and 1 dollar=4s. for ways and means. Tobacco duty, 35 dollars=7l. the 100 lbs.; namely, 30 dollars to the state, and 5 dollars for ways and means.

The duty on flour, 3 dollars 5 rials=14s. 6d.; namely, 2 dollars 4 rials=10s. to the state, 4 rials=2s. for ways and means, and 5 rials=2s. 6d. for establishments of public charity. Wheat, the fanega of 135 lbs., 1 dollar 6 rials=7s; namely, 1 dollar 2 rials=5s. to the state, 2 rials=1s. for ways and means, and 2 rials=1s. for establishments of public charity.

The following duties will be levied on the importation of foreign merchandise; viz., three per cent to the state, and one half per cent to the *arbitrios* (city-toll); on gold and silver manufactures, real jewellery, with or without stones, clock-work, watches, real pearls, precious stones of every kind, five per cent to the state, and one per cent to the *arbitrios*; amber, gold and silver thread and wire, leaves, and spangles, civet, musk, eleven per cent to the state, and one per cent to the *arbitrios*; on timber, iron and steel raw.

The following articles shall pay the same duties when they are intended for the consumption of the population of the *first rate* ports of the republic: anchors, oars, biscuit, wood, handspikes, levers, &c., pitch and tar, cordage, iron chain cables, nails of every sort, travellers (a kind of block), hooks and grapnels, ships' cooking utensils, fidds, sheet copper, tin, tow, sheet iron, linseed oil, talc lanterns, lard, paint, sheet lead, pulleys, salt-fish, blocks, grindstones, resin, sand minute glasses, sea lead and line, tobacco for chewing, tissues for sails and flags, salt meat (better known by the name of *carne*), zinc.

The articles enumerated above, sent from the magazines and warehouses of the Customs to Lima, or to any other place of the state, will pay the whole of the duty named in this article, or twenty-one per cent to the state and two per cent to the *arbitrios*.

Paying sixteen per cent to the state, and two per cent to the *arbitrios*:—

Tissues of cotton; blonds and tulles.

„ flax; cambric; handkerchiefs in pieces.

„ „ lace and tulles.

„ „ *Estopilles*.

„ silk; and all other articles except *tissues* properly so called.

„ „ blonds and tulles.

„ „ „ others with gold or silver.

„ „ „ „ others.

Paying twenty-three per cent to the state and two per cent to the *arbitrios* :—

Tissues and all articles not named in the foregoing or following tables, of cotton, of wool, of flax.

Paying thirty-two per cent to the state, and three per cent to the *arbitrios* :—
Trunks for travelling, musical instruments, pianos; furniture—chairs and sofas, and their frames, beds, iron camp beds, desks: skins and leather—*cueros* of every kind, whole or in pieces—with or without hair, manufactured or tanned, white or dyed.

Paying thirty-six per cent to the state and four per cent to the *arbitrios* :—
Hats and caps of every kind, boots and shoes, clothes (made up), furniture of every kind (except chairs and chair frames), pastes as provisions, vermicelli and other sorts, of every kind of flour, carriages of every kind.

The articles enumerated in the following table will pay *fixed* or *specified* duties :—

ARTICLES.	Duties payable					ARTICLES.	Duties payable						
	To the State.		To the Arbitrios.		TOTAL.		To the State.		To the Arbitrios.		TOTAL.		
	pi.	ri.	pi.	ri.			pi.	ri.	pi.	ri.			
Butter.....lb.	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	1	Flour, without distinction as to quality, &c.....quintal	2	4	0	4	3	0
Pork fat.....do.	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	2	Olive oil, in bottles, or otherwise12 bottles, or arroba	3	4	0	4	4	0
Beer and cider							Indigo.....lb.	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	1
12 bottles, or arroba	0	6	0	2	1	0	Skins.—Zuelas of half leather (half soles)... ..per half sole	0	3	0	1	0	4
Brandy of every kind, of 20 degrees.....12 bottles, or arroba							Ordinary soap.....quintal	6	0	1	0	7	0
do. do. from 21 degrees, and above.....12 bottles, or arroba	2	0	0	4	2	4	Sugar (azucar).....arroba	2	4	0	4	3	0
Liqueurs. do. do. do.	4	0	1	0	5	0	Tallow, raw and melted.....quintal	1	4	0	4	2	0
Wines of every kind	3	4	0	4	4	0	Tobacco, in leaves, foreign, of every kind.....quintal	30	0	5	0	35	0
12 bottles or arroba							— manufactured into cigars, lb.	0	5	0	2	0	7
Cacao.....quintal	2	0	0	4	2	4	— do. into snuff, Polvillo.,do.	0	4	0	1	0	5
Coffee.....do.	4	4	0	4	5	0	— do. do. rappee..do.	0	3	0	1	0	4
Playing cards.....dozen	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	3	Tea.....do.	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	2
Candles, spermaceti.....lb.	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	1	Meat, ham.....quintal	6	0	1	0	7	0
— wax.....do.	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	3	— other kind of.....do.	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
— tallow.....do.	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	2	— charqui, dried.....do.	0	6	0	2	1	0
Cheese.....quintal	4	0	0	4	4	4							
Grain;—wheat.....fanega	1	2	0	2	1	4							
Rice.....quintal	3	4	0	4	4	0							

The following articles are *exempt* from *import duties* :—Animals of every kind (alive or not), gold and silver (in paste, bars, powder, or specie), wood (hoops—*flejes*, masts, staves—*duelas*), maps and globes, geographical and marine maps and charts, charcoal, sales of freights to the profit of citizens of the state, engravings and drawings, elements of drawing in books, engravings in sheets, grain (other than that destined for sale) seeds, plants (others than those destined for sale), clothes and other dressing apparel, specimens of natural history, curiosities, &c., coals; surgical, mathematical, and scientific instruments; machines and tools—*maguinas* of every kind, alembecs and others, and drawings or models of machinery, *herramientas* for mechanics, imported by workmen establishing themselves in the country, and in a moderate quantity; mining tools, tools; mercury, mercury—*azoque* (quicksilver), music in sheets or bound in volumes, church plate and ornaments; * tombstones and other stones cut for paving, &c.; printing presses, &c., sculpture, statues.

The following articles are *prohibited* to be *imported* :—Fire-arms of every kind, obscene pictures, shot and bullets, obscene books, lead (except sheet lead), gunpowder, bad provisions (which from their peculiar state might endanger the public health), tissues of wool, cloths *de estrella*, swanskin.

The following deductions will be made from the articles upon which a duty is levied in order to meet certain expences :—

* The actual and final destination of the above article to be given.

Articles paying a duty according to the value . . 5 per cent 0 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent

"	"	. 11	"	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
"	"	. 16	"	0 $\frac{2}{3}$	"
"	"	. . 23	"	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	"
"	"	. . 32	"	1	"
"	"	. . 36	"	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
"	specified	quicksilver		0 $\frac{1}{4}$	"
"	"	other kind	}	2	"
"	"	exempt of duty	}		"

These deductions must be paid in specie, and immediately upon the merchandise being taken into consumption.

Foreign produce re-exported from the bonding warehouses will pay the following duties :—single bales, three rials; double, six rials; other kind in proportion; *silver* in chests and bars, four rials,

Native produce, under circumstances similar to the above, will pay, once for all, two rials.

The following duties will be levied instead of the specified duty :—Flour, in barrels or sacks, five rials per barrel or sack; wheat two rials per *fanega*. Those books which are allowed to be imported will pay six per cent of their value.

EXPORT DUTIES.

The produce of the soil and industries of the republic are exempt from all export duty, as also are the following articles :—Gold and silver thread and wire, spangles, lace, and other similar articles; copper.

The following articles, however, form exceptions to this general rule :—Gold and silver in any shape, cascarilla (Peruvian bark), saltpetre—paying on exportation abroad, cascarilla, two per cent of value; saltpetre, four per cent; coined silver, five per cent; coined gold, one per cent; gold paste or powder, two rials per ounce; silver manufactured, or old silver, four rials per mark; gold (manufactured), two rials per ounce.

When the foregoing articles are exported by national vessels, three-fourths of the above duties only will be levied.

TONNAGE AND PORT DUES.

All foreign vessels which discharge a part or the whole of their cargo in any port of the republic will be subjected to the following charges, payable at the port where they first discharge the whole or part of their freight :—Anchorage and port dues, five piastres per vessel; captain's, ship's complement, and health dues, five piastres per vessel; tonnage dues two rials per ton.

The amount of tonnage will be ascertained from the ship's papers or charters.

An export duty of two per cent is levied on bark, and of four per cent on nitrate of soda.

The *importation of small shot, coatings, and star cloths*, are altogether prohibited.

In addition to the above duties on the import and export of goods, the following additional duties are by the 81st and 82nd Articles thereon imposed, in lieu of the payments formerly made for crane, mole, and other local charges, such as for watching, portorage of goods to custom-house warehouses, and their stowage therein; namely, one-quarter per cent on goods chargeable with a duty of four per cent; one-half per cent ditto of eleven per cent; one-quarter per cent ditto of sixteen per cent; three-quarters per cent ditto of twenty-three per cent; one per cent ditto of thirty-two per cent; and one-half ditto of thirty-six per cent. Two per cent on goods chargeable with a specific duty, excepting quicksilver, on which the duty of one-quarter per cent is recoverable.

On the re-embarkation of all foreign goods, 3 rials = 1s. 6d. a package, or half a mule-load, say about 150 lbs. weight; 4 rials = 2s. on every box of silver.

The productions of the country are chargeable, for once only, with a duty of 2 rials

= 1s. (no measure or weight stated) upon their embarkation, disembarkation, or re-embarkation.

By Article 83 of the same law, "Every class of merchandise and produce which shall be conveyed directly from Europe, Asia, and North America, or by the Isthmus of Panama, to the principal ports of Peru, in foreign ships or consigned to foreigners, shall liquidate ten per cent of the total amount of the duties on their import payable to the state, in government *documents of retired officers' pensions, documents of the foreign debt, or documents of the home debt, and the remainder in cash.* If the said merchandise and produce shall be imported directly in foreign ships, and be consigned to Peruvian merchants, or in national vessels consigned to foreigners, they shall liquidate twenty per cent in the before-mentioned documents, and the remainder in cash; and if they shall be introduced in national ships consigned to citizens of the republic, they shall liquidate *thirty per cent in government documents,* and the remainder in cash. The foregoing are in violation of the treaty with England.

By Article 2, Commercial Code, the custom-house of Arica is allowed to make transshipments, solely, however, to the port of Cobija, levying 2 dollars = 8s. for duty on policies, and observing the legal formalities.

Foreign vessels may convey provisions, grass, and barley, to the minor port of Iquique, and to the Creek of Pisagua, when there are no national vessels to convey these articles.

The period of deposit in the port of Arica shall be extended to three years.

The natural or industrial productions of Bolivia may be deposited in private warehouses, with the consent of the custom-house, without requiring any warehouse rent.

The custom-house of Tacna may permit the diminishing of the weight and the reduction of double packages for their more easy conveyance into the interior, requiring the memorial and other formalities, which, by the 71st Article, the collector of the customs ought to exact upon importations.

Importation.—The revisal of the ship's manifest by the consignee of the vessel shall take place within twenty-four hours after its delivery in the ports of Callao and Huachaco. In the port of Arica thirty-six hours, and in that of Paita, forty-eight hours are allowed for this revision.

Additions may be made to this manifest, but on no account any article abstracted, or its contents reduced.

When the alterations mentioned in the foregoing article shall have been effected, the consignee of the vessel shall present a second "general manifest," and also one in detail in the Spanish language, or on stamped paper.

His manifest must contain—the marks and numbers of the bales or packages; the description of article, quality, or quantity of the contents of the bale; the weight and quantity of articles not packed in bales.

The names of the "special consignees," who will answer for the genuineness of the articles intrusted to them (namely, that they are the *same articles* consigned to them by the merchant). The whole to be written in full, the margin free from writing, figures alone to be introduced, without either interpolations (notes excepted) or erasures.

Those articles, of which the consignee is unknown, shall be described in a supplementary document, and deposited forthwith in the custom-house.

One manifest to be sent to the inspector-general of public accounts, and the other will remain with the customs. No manifest will be considered, unless it conforms strictly with the above formalities.

The manifests being delivered, they will be compared, and if found correct, an order will be given (*papeleta*) for the unloading to commence, without which order the merchandise will be liable to be seized.

An exception will be made for the landing of samples of small value.

Merchandise must not be unloaded before six in the morning, nor after two in the afternoon, from the 1st of May to the 1st of November; and not after three o'clock in the afternoon during the remainder of the year.

The entrance of the articles of the ship's cargo shall be admitted as follows, into the magazines and warehouses of the custom-house:—

Almonds, in sacks ; wood in (timber) ; brandy, botijas ; wines, in botijas ; cacao ; cocoa ; candle-wicks (Pavilo) ; copper ; iron ; grain (wheat) and flour ; nuts ; origan ; hides and skins, leather for saddles ; paving-stones ; rice ; soap, native ; salt and stones ; tallow ; sugar ; tobacco, native ; merchandises and drugs of every other kind, foreign or native, which do not pay duty. Articles relative to the complement of a vessel. Every kind of provision, except those enumerated above.

In order to introduce an article for consumption, three copies of a "Poliza," or import bill, must be made, containing the name of the importing vessel ; the date of the "manifest in detail ;" the marks and numbers of the bales, their contents, weight, or measure, quantity and quality, exact or approximate. A duty of four reals is levied upon this "bill."

Exports.—The discharge of the ship's cargo being completed, the captain shall certify the same on stamped paper, in which he must give a list of the articles, if any, still remaining on board. An inspection of the hold will then be made by the proper officer.

A *clearance* permit will be given by the customs, free of expense, and which must be written on the following description of paper : for foreign vessels, paper of three piastres ; national ditto, ditto stamped.

Re-exportation.—The re-exporter from the bonding warehouse must present three "demands," on ordinary paper, for which he will pay—to re-export abroad, one piastre ; to a national port, four rials.

In transporting the cargo of one ship to another in the Port of Callao, two "demands" must be sent in, which will cost, if the cargo is destined to go to a foreign port, two piastres, ditto to a national port, ditto.

The following articles are considered as being included under the head of ships' provisions and ships' necessities, and pay no duties except *bonding* fees, &c. : biscuit, salt fish, tobacco for chewing, salt meat, anchors, oars, wood, handspikes, levers, &c., pitch and tar, iron chain cables, nails (clavos) of every kind, cordage (jarcia) ditto, travellers (a kind of block), hooks and grapnels, cooking utensils, sheet copper, tow, fish oil, linseed oil, talc lanterns, soot, paint, pumps, blocks, grindstones, sand-glasses (half minutes), sounding-lead and line, tissues for sails and flags, zinc plates.

When captains of men-of-war desire to send the wages of their crew to Callao, they must procure the note-of-hand of the governor of the station. If the amount is in hard dollars, or in ounces of gold, an export duty will be levied upon the money.

Coasting Trade.—The coasting trade can only be carried on by national vessels,* with the exception of a few articles, and the produce of the country, or such merchandises as are free of duty,—to the Port of Callao, *via* the ports of Arica and Islay, when there are not any national vessels loading at these two latter ports.

The following are considered secondary ports—Iquique, Ilo, Pisco, Huacho, Santa, Pacasmayo, San José de Lambayeque.

The following are *qualified* roadsteads only for exporting the produce of the country—Sama, Cocotea, Mejillones, Nasca, Chincha, Cerro-Azul, Chaucay, Supe, Pisagua, Quilca, Huarucey, Casura, Samauco, Sechura, Tumbes.

Bond Warehousing.—Callao is the only port in the republic where merchandise can be bonded for an unlimited term, without the payment of the duty on them. For the first *three months* no bonding dues will be levied.

For every month exceeding three, only one rial per *pieza*. By this is meant the *half* of a *load*, valued according to its bulk or weight, at six *arrobas*. If a month is commenced, that month will be charged in full.

Internal Trade.—The interior trade of Peru is exclusively reserved to the natives and citizens who are inscribed in the matriculation-book.

Mercantile houses for importation into the interior (*casas introductoras*) can only be established at the following places ;—Arica and Tacna, Islay and Arequipa, Callao and Lima, Huanchaco and Truxillo, Paita and Piura. These houses must sell their goods by wholesale, and not in separate parcels, under pain of forfeiting a penalty of 500

* In the *first-rate* and *secondary* ports, and the *qualified roadsteads*.

piastres, to be the reward of the informer; such penalty to be levied by either the tribunal of the *consulado* or the *commercial judge* of the place.

All products of the soil of the republic are allowed free circulation with the exception of the following:—gold and silver, in paste, in bars, and in powder. These must be accompanied by an “*acquit-à-caution*;” brandy, wines, tobacco. Other articles taxed with a duty.

The customs’ duty must be paid at the first place of importation.

Transit by Land.—Arica is the only place of transit for the imports and exports of the Republic of Bolivia.

The bonding warehouses at Arica will receive goods re-exported from those at Callao by national and foreign vessels, for the trade of the interior. The produce and manufactures of Bolivia will also be received in the warehouses, to remain in bond for exportation.

CHAPTER X.

BOLIVIAN TARIFF DUTIES AND TRADE.

1. THE ultramarine effects which may come into the republic of Bolivia by the land frontiers from the 1st of January, 1845, shall pay duties in the following proportion.

2. Ultramarine liquors and foreign cacao, thirty-six per cent.

3. Perfumery, clocks for tables, or watches, cards, cigars, women’s shoes, caps of every kind, desks, iron or brass bedsteads, chairs, sofas, toilette glasses, lanterns and lustres, candlesticks, every description of mercery, foreign gold lace, tocuyos (grey shirting), and every other article to which this law assigns no direct duty, twenty-eight per cent.

4. All woollen goods, silk ditto, linen embroidered, lamas, lamillas (cloth of gold), tissue, eighteen per cent.

5. Earthenware, glass, crystal, and writing paper, eight per cent.

6. Gold and silver ornaments, precious stones, and ironware.

7. *Articles free from all Duties.*—Cattle, comestibles of the first necessity brought into the republic. Also are free from all duties, on their introduction into the republic, raw cotton, raw wool, cotton-thread, and woollen ditto, vulgarly called *caito*, excepting rice, which is to pay forty per cent.

8. All importation of foreign merchandise which may enter the republic, shall pay, besides the duties prefixed by this law, a medio per cent for the funds of the Chamber of Commerce in the capital in which they are consumed.

9. Books introduced into the republic by its land frontiers shall pay six per cent, applicable to the funds of the library of the capital where the expenditure takes place.

10. The government is authorised to lower the duties which in the republic weigh on the products of the industry of the neighbouring states, as soon as it obtains from them securities that in these states will be observed the corresponding reciprocity as regards the products of Bolivian industry introduced into their territory. It is authorised to fix the duties on coined silver and gold, or on bullion on their extraction from the republic, as well by the land frontiers as by the port of Cobija.

11. From the 1st of January, 1845, the introduction of gunpowder is prohibited into the republic, either by its land frontiers or by the port of Cobija. Matches (*fosforos*) are also prohibited.

Dated, Illustrious and heroic city of Sucre, 2nd of November, 1844.

JOSE BALLIVIAN; the Minister of Finance, MIGUEL MARIA AGUIRRE.

In 1846, two Englishmen at Corocoro, a place long famous for copper ores, are said

to have discovered a silver mine of immense dimensions in the province of Inquisivi, department of La Paz.

VALUE of Goods and Duties collected in the Custom Houses of La Paz, Oruro, and Cochabamba on Ultramarine Merchandise imported into Bolivia, by her Land Frontiers, in the Year 1840; and of the Value of Coined Money exported to Peru; and of the Duties paid thereon by the Exporters from this to the Peruvian Republic.

DEPARTMENTS.	Importation of Ultramarine Goods by Land Frontiers.		Exportation of Coined Money.	
	Value of Goods in Dollars.	Duties paid in Dollars.	Money exported in Dollars.	Duties paid in Dollars.
	dollars rials.	dollars rials.	dollars rials.	dollars rials.
Cochabamba.....	8,389 0	1,746 1½	9,750 0	195 0
Oruro.....	15,255 5	3,039 6	10,344 0	206 7
La Paz.....	147,500 4½	46,220 2½	107,433 2½	2,189 2½
Total.....	171,145 1½ £35,228 0s. 0d.	51,006 2 £10,201 0s. 0d.	127,527 2½ £25,505 0s. 0d.	2,591 1½ £518 0s. 0d.

NOTE.—By a document lately published in the official *Gazette* of Bolivia, the sum of money, in gold and silver, coined at the national mint of Potosi during the year 1840, amounted to 2,830,891 dollars, or equal to about £566,178 sterling; viz., in silver, 2,600,507 dollars; and in gold, 230,384 dollars.

EXPORTATION of Goods from Bolivia in 1840.

MERCHANDISE.	From Cochabamba.	From Oruro.	From La Paz.	Totals.	Approximate Value of the Merchandise.
					dollars cts.
Soap.....	349 quintals.	275 1½ quintals.		624 1½ quintals.	8,743 0
Tobacco.....	376 arrobas.	17 arrobas 9½lb.	1,060 arrobas.	1,453 arrobas 9½lb.	3,634 3
Sandals.....	147 entire.			147 entire.	330 6
Goat Skins.....	9,666	556		10,222	2,555 4
Tocuyo (cotton stuffs).....	10,380 varas.			10,380 varas.	1,297 4
Banacom (ditto)...	7,820 ditto.			7,820 ditto.	977 4
Earthenware.....	242 baskets or crates.			242 baskets.	484 0
Starch.....	37 arrobas.			37 arrobas.	111 0
Shoes.....	233 pairs.			233 pairs.	116 4
Honey.....	15 1½ arrobas.			15 1½ arrobas.	31 0
Wheat Flour.....	56 fanegas.			56 fanegas.	336 0
Common Gum.....	33 arrobas.			33 arrobas.	49 4
Tamarinds.....	18 arrobas.			18 arrobas.	168 6
Ponchos (half cloaks).....	95			95	285 0
Leather Chairs.....	66			66	132 0
Wax.....	50 arrobas.			50 arrobas.	200 0
Pewter.....		4,959 quintals 17lb.		4,959 quintals 17lb.	29,754 0
Cocco (leaf for chewing).....		70 baskets.	4,829 baskets.	4,899 baskets.	23,995 0
Pellons (saddle cloths).....		28		28	70 0
Coffee.....			46 arrobas.	46 arrobas.	115 0
Bark.....			1,013 quintals.	1,013 quintals.	22,286 0
					95,668 35 equal to £19,134

NOTE.—Wools are not included in this statement, the number of quintals exported in 1840 not being as yet known.

Ministry of Finance, Sucre, Feb. 15, 1841.

COBIJA is the only legal sea port in Bolivia. There are ship-building yards established in it, and the vessels built have privileges conferred upon them. The duties levied at the custom-house of Cobija on foreign merchandise imported during the year 1840, amounted to 103,951 dollars two and a-half rials, equal to about 20,790*l.* sterling.

A quay, barracks, and a new custom-house are the public works in progress, and a spring of fine water (a necessary of which Cobija was formerly deficient) has lately been discovered by an English engineer.

Number of foreign vessels which entered the port of Cobija during the year 1840:—English, thirty-three; French, fifteen; Spanish, three; North American, four; Sardinian, four; Mexican, one; Granadian, one; Ecuadorian, two; Chilean, twenty; Peruvian, fifteen; total, ninety-two.

Population in 1843—Males, 322; females, 283; male children, 105; female ditto, eighty-three; total, 793 inhabitants. Births in the year—Males, twenty; females,

twenty-six ; total, forty-six. Deaths—Old persons, three ; adults, twenty-one ; children, thirty-six ; total, sixty. Marriages, five.

The garrison, and men employed as labourers in the different mining establishments on the coast are not included in the above statement.

Ships which have anchored in the port during the year 1843, not including the steam vessels, ships of war, and sailing packets:—English, twenty-one ; French, twelve ; North American, seven ; Chilian, twenty-four ; Spanish, three ; Belgian, one ; Sardinian, four ; Peruvian, seven ; Hamburgers, eight ; Danish, four ; total, ninety-one.

AMOUNT of the Exportation of Money through Cobija in the Year 1843.

EXPORTATION.	In Dollars.		Ounces.		Small Money.		TOTAL.	
	dlrs.	rials.	dlrs.	rials.	dlrs.	rials.	dlrs.	rials.
From the interior of Bolivia.....	1,409,097	7	109,250	3	50,520	4		
From the Argentine Provinces.....	56,917	0	12,852	2	67	0		
Total.....	1,466,014	7	122,102	5	50,587	4	1,638,705	0
Circulating in the district.....							91,828	1½
Total dollars.....							1,730,533	1½

AMOUNT of Importation of Merchandise through Cobija in the Year 1843.

	dlrs.	rials.
Sent by Custom House permits to the interior of Bolivia.....	1,406,579	3
Sent to the Argentine Provinces, by an approximate calculation.	100,000	0
Consumed in the port.....	28,243	0
Total dollars.....	1,534,822	3

Two *primary* schools exist in Cobija, one paid by the state, the other a private establishment. The town possesses besides an hospital, a druggist's shop, seven mercantile warehouses, eleven shops—to sell in retail—well supplied with foreign goods ; seventy-eight chandlers' shops (*pulperias*), seven bakers, five tailors, two shoemakers, three principal eating and lodging-houses, two inferior eating and lodging-houses, two billiard-rooms, four large mining establishments with 120 labourers, and three smaller ones with thirty labourers.—Cobija, January 1st, 1844.

CHAPTER XI.

STATISTICS OF CHILE.

THE administration of the affairs of Chile, has been far more regularly and justly executed than that of any other Spanish American republic. The condition of this state has, consequently, been more prosperous.

We have little data as to the trade of Chile under Spain, as a great part of its commerce passed through Peru and part through La Plata. Some time after the independence of Chile, the foreign trade opened round Cape Horn with Europe, and it was increased to other parts. In 1824 the value of imports were estimated at 11,500,000 dollars, and the exports of gold and silver at 80,000 dollars, and of agricultural products of 4,000,000 dollars. This we consider but a vague estimate.

Revenue and Expenditure.—Chile has maintained her public credit amid war

and difficulty. In 1833, when the country required some assistance from turmoil, the public debt had accumulated to the enormous amount, for a small population, of about 10,000,000 dollars. In consequence of this burden, the President disbanded one-third of the standing army, and greatly reduced the civil expenditure.

In 1835, an equilibrium in the finances of the state was obtained, and more than 1,500,900 piastres of interior debts were paid off.

INCREASE of Revenue.

	piastres.		piastres.
1831	1,517,537	1834.....	1,922,966
1832	1,652,713	1835.....	2,003,421
1833	1,770,760		

The annual mining produce under the Spaniards was, on the average :

Silver..... 23,500 marcs (1 marc=8 oz.) | Copper..... 25,000 cwt.

In 1834, it had risen to—

Silver 164,000 marcs. | Copper..... 75,000 cwt.

which brought into circulation a sum of about 2,500,000 piastres.

In 1837, Chile was, owing to the intrigues of Santa Cruz's agents, declared to be *in statu belli*.

STATE of Revenue in

	piastres.		piastres.
1839	2,386,952	1842.....	3,074,575
1840.....	2,946,247	1843.....	3,160 000
1841.....	2,761,787		

The following were the government's savings for a period of ten years :—

Y E A R S.	Amount.	Y E A R S.	Amount.
	piastres.		piastres.
1832.....	118,241	1838.....	114,512
1833.....	134,565	1839.....	219,267
1834.....	200,519	1840.....	415,026
1836.....	212,926	1841.....	569,554
1837.....	216,311	1842.....	1,395,412

R E V E N U E, 1842.	Amount.	E X P E N D I T U R E, 1842.	Amount.
	piastres.		piastres.
Balance in hand, 1841.....	569,564	Costs of representative.....	8,743
Customs.....	1,936,323*	Ministry of the interior.....	153,851
Monopolies.....	590,943	" " exterior.....	36,387
Tithes.....	212,427	Charities and public works.....	17,885
Registration.....	69,118	Pious pensions.....	12,713
Conveyancing duties.....	77,710	Administration of justice.....	120,948
Patents.....	32,379	Religion.....	42,730
Stamps.....	44,299	Public instruction	25,194
Mint.....	23,320	Ministry of finances.....	599,353
Postal Revenue.....	40,440	Interest and amortisation of interior debt...	151,147
Highway tolls, &c.....	29,796	" " " exterior debt...	256,762
Auction duties.....	4,000	Ministry of war.....	603,551
Sundries.....	13,817	National militia.....	199,179
Confiscations and restitutions.....	21,650	Navy.....	122,158
Deposits	146,181	Military loan institution.....	38,930
		Repayment of deposits.....	12,979
		Restitution of payments in error.....	7,212
Total.....	3,805,967		
		Expenditure.....	2,409,722
		Savings.....	1,396,245
		Total.....	3,805,967

* The maximum, till 1830, had been 800,000 piastres.

CHAPTER XII.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF CHILE.

APPROXIMATE Calculation of the Annual Quantity and Value of Chilean Native Productions, including the Precious Metals, exported from Chile between 1836 and 1839, both inclusive.—Exchange, 48*d.* per dollar.

NATURE OF EXPORTS.	Quantity.	Price per Weight or Quantity.			Value.		
		drs. rials.	£	s. d.	dollars.	£	s. d.
Silver, in bars.....marcs.	128,580	10 0 equal	2	0 0	1,285,000	257,160	0 0
— in Chilean coindo.	6,240	10 0 "	2	0 0	62,400	12,480	0 0
Gold, in bars.....do.	1,130	128 0 "	25	12 0	144,640	28,928	0 0
— in Chilean coin.....do.	3,281	128 0 "	25	12 0	419,968	83,993	12 0
Copper, in bars.....quintals.	61,797	15 0 "	3	0 0	926,955	185,391	0 0
— ore.....do.	223,922	2 4 "		10 0	559,805	111,961	0 0
Estimated returns in bills for supplies to foreign shipping, viz., men-of-war and merchant vessels, (United States, British, and French,) and salaries of diplomatic and consular agents....					800,000	160,000	0 0
Other Chilean articles of export, as wheat, flour, hides, cow-horns, wool, hemp, building timber, Chile hams, nuts, and tallow (from Mendoza, Argentine Republic).....					1,500,000	300,000	0 0
Total.....					5,699,768	1,139,913	12 0

NOTE.—The amount of the export of gold, silver, and copper is the average of the amount of these articles exported from 1836 to 1839, both inclusive, as shown by the returns presented to Congress by the Chilean Minister of Finance; but in this amount is not included money or bullion passing in transit through the port of Valparaiso as returns for foreign goods sold in that port for Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and the western coasts of New Granada, Central America, and Mexico; and for China and other countries.

THE TRADE OF VALPARAISO DURING THE YEAR 1840.

During the continuation of the war between Chile and Peru, from the end of 1836 to the middle of 1839, the exports from Europe were cautiously limited.

On the re-establishment of peace the small proportion of foreign supplies remaining in the warehouses of Valparaiso found a ready and profitable sale. But the intelligence of peace having reached Europe, supplies from England, France, Germany, and North America poured in during the latter end of 1839 and the whole of 1840, to an unprecedented extent, and infinitely disproportioned to the consumption of the inhabitants.

Thus the general tonnage of foreign shipping entered inwards during the following years amounted to, in 1837, 25,935 tons; of which, from Great Britain direct, 4533 tons; 1838, 24,198, from Great Britain, 4098 tons; 1839, 27,520, and from Great Britain direct 7507; in 1840, 45,512 tons, from Great Britain 11,010 tons.

During the former years, and until the middle of 1839, Valparaiso was the port to which the merchants and dealers established in those parts along the coast of the Pacific, from Cape Horn to the most northern part of Mexico (who, having rarely any direct communication with Europe), came to purchase the larger portion of their supplies. The blockade of the entire coast of Mexico having cut off all commercial communication on that side, had considerably increased the demand from hence, and the exportation from this country of European commodities would have been still more extensive had the event been foreseen, and articles, in a sufficient quantity, suited to the demand of that market, been provided.

The Bolivian market is the only one with which the transit trade has increased.

The value of European goods existing in Valparaiso at the end of 1840, was calculated at 14,000,000 dollars.

The trade between this state and her majesty's Australian dominions has rapidly increased during the year 1840, as compared with that of 1839, but as the exportation, composed of raw produce, must depend materially on the favourable or unfavourable nature of the harvest in those territories, a sound inference can scarcely be drawn.

The departures, in the two above-mentioned years, have been—

	From Talcahuano.	From Valparaiso.
1839	281 tons	724 tons.
1840	1687 „	4701 „

with cargoes, principally of corn and flour, and an occasional vessel loaded with mares and other beasts of burden.

The imports are trifling, consisting of sheep and articles of small account, though numerous vessels seek these ports in search of freight for Europe or elsewhere.

The commercial importance of Valparaiso, the principal seaport of Chile, shows a state of prosperity and confidence in the stability of the government.

While in 1834 only 450 vessels aggregating 77,700 tons entered this port, the proportions in 1842, were as follows:—

Men-of-war	44	} 187,453 tons.
Steamboats	24	
Commercial vessels	617	

During the year 1842, the commercial movements in all Chilian ports—Valparaiso, Coquimbo, Copiapo, Constitucion, Talcahuano, Valdivia, and Chiloë—together were:—

<i>Entries</i> .	Men of-war	48	} 339,019 tons.
	Trading vessels	1173	
	Steamers	112	
<i>Departures</i>	Men-of-war	54	} 328,288 tons.
	Steamers	111	
	Trading vessels	1209	

The customs' revenue of which amounted to 1,936,328 piastres.

Transit Trade.—At the custom-house of Valparaiso, there were, on May 31, 1842, 722,472 bales of merchandise.

The value of which was 7,159,036 piastres.

And coined metals to the amount of . 3,260,833 „

10,419,869 „

AMOUNT of Shipments to Valparaiso, during the Year 1840, from England.

A R T I C L E S.	Quan- tity.	Value.	Total Value.	A R T I C L E S.	Quan- tity.	Value.	Total Value.
	No.	£	£		No.	£	£
Plain cotton, 1st quarter . yds.	3,853,657	75,541		Brought forward	..	..	328,851
— 2nd ditto do.	4,992,117	98,388		Coloured Cottons. 1st quarter			
— 3rd ditto do.	5,205,082	103,207		— 1st ditto yds.	1,162,126	36,521	
— 4th ditto do.	2,960,215	51,715		— 2nd ditto do.	1,576,410	42,604	
Total	17,011,071	..	328,851	— 3rd ditto do.	3,754,096	89,350	
Carried forward	..	..	328,851	— 4th ditto do.	1,535,805	31,567	
				Total	8,028,437	..	200,042
				Carried forward	..	..	528,893

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.	Total Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.	Total Value.
	No.	£	£		No.	£	£
Brought forward.....	..	..	528,893	Brought forward.....	..	..	1,095,997
Printed cottons, 1st quarter				Woollen hose, 1st quarter.doz.			
— yds. 2,076,313	51,435			— 2nd ditto.....do.	280	57	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	2,841,836	69,183		— 3rd ditto.....do.	80	27	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	3,455,185	86,767		— 4th ditto.....do.	269	182	
— 4th ditto.....do.	1,697,966	41,800		Total.....	629	..	266
Total.....	10,071,300	..	249,185	Silk hose, 1st quarter.....doz.	145	3,992	
Cotton shawls, 1st quarter.doz.	975	542		— 2nd ditto.....do.	839	3,422	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	1,663	1,014		— 3rd ditto.....do.	766	1,703	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	1,677	826		— 4th ditto.....do.	576	1,500	
— 4th ditto.....do.	509	548		Total.....	2,326	..	10,617
Total.....	4,824	..	2,930	Silk, 1st quarter.....	..	6,126	
Cotton handkerchiefs, 1st quarter.....doz.	9,736	2,694		— 2nd ditto.....	..	3,531	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	14,001	2,822		— 3rd ditto.....	..	5,490	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	7,773	2,029		— 4th ditto.....	..	2,527	
— 4th ditto.....do.	3,430	877		Total.....	..	..	17,674
Total.....	34,940	..	8,422	Metals, including copper sheathing, tin, &c. &c., 1st quarter.....	..	9,543	
Silk, cotton, and worsted thread, 1st quarter.....lbs.	34,105	4,440		— 2nd ditto.....	..	7,301	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	94,762	7,629		— 3rd ditto.....	..	11,052	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	90,125	4,827		— 4th ditto.....	..	12,877	
— 4th ditto.....do.	31,810	3,165		Total.....	..	..	40,773
Total.....	250,802	..	20,061	Carpets, 1st quarter.....	17,806	2,903	
Cotton miscellaneous, 1st quarter.....	..	783		— 2nd ditto.....	19,433	2,502	
— 2nd ditto.....	..	1,055		— 3rd ditto.....	9,900	1,580	
— 3rd ditto.....	..	1,737		— 4th ditto.....	73,491	3,893	
— 4th ditto.....	..	120		Total.....	120,630	..	10,378
Total.....	..	..	3,695	Leather, 1st quarter.....	..	903	
Cotton hose, 1st quarter...doz.	9,315	3,457		— 2nd ditto.....	..	422	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	10,165	4,928		— 3rd ditto.....	..	297	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	11,375	4,697		— 4th ditto.....	..	460	
— 4th ditto.....do.	12,091	4,633		Total.....	..	..	2,082
Total.....	42,946	..	17,735	Earthenware, 1st quarter.....	..	404	
Linen, 1st quarter.....do.	468,055	16,842		— 2nd ditto.....	..	763	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	295,181	41,665		— 3rd ditto.....	..	1,680	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	595,360	25,832		— 4th ditto.....	..	1,655	
— 4th ditto.....do.	147,176	21,067		Total.....	..	..	4,502
Total.....	1,505,772	..	105,406	Sundries, comprising under this head all sorts of clothing, 1st quarter.....	..	5,103	
Woollens, 1st quarter.....	..	32,089		— 2nd ditto.....	..	2,411	
— 2nd ditto.....	..	23,121		— 3rd ditto.....	..	5,354	
— 3rd ditto.....	..	31,709		— 4th ditto.....	..	6,587	
— 4th ditto.....	..	40,250		Total.....	..	..	19,455
Total.....	..	..	127,169	Wines and spirits, 1st quarter galls.	2,528		
Woollen shawls, 1st quarter, doz.	8,272	3,953		— 2nd ditto.....do.	2,958		
— 2nd ditto.....do.	3,609	1,389		— 3rd ditto.....do.	5,360		
— 3rd ditto.....do.	2,639	1,117		— 4th ditto.....do.	3,668		
— 4th ditto.....do.	2,180	1,435		Total.....	14,514		
Total.....	16,700	..	7,894	Hats and caps, 1st quarter.....	..	36	
Silk, cotton, and worsted shawls, 1st quarter.....doz.	20	320		— 2nd ditto.....	..	53	
— 2nd ditto.....do.	1,496	695		— 3rd ditto.....	..	190	
— 3rd ditto.....do.	..	..		— 4th ditto.....	..	..	279
— 4th ditto.....do.	556	850		Total amount.....	..	..	1,202,523
Total.....	2,072	..	1,865				
Silk, cotton, and worsted goods, 1st quarter.....	..	2,796					
— 2nd ditto.....	..	3,239					
— 3rd ditto.....	..	4,174					
— 4th ditto.....	..	3,533					
Total.....	..	..	13,742				
Carried forward.....	..	..	1,095,997				

A RETURN of the average Market Prices, Rate of Freight, Extent of Stocks in Granary, and Duty on Corn, Grain, Flour, and other Articles, the Raw Produce of Agriculture; and also of Hides, Horns, Tallow, Wool, Hemp, Cordage, Copper, Gold, Silver, and other Productions of Chile at the Port of Valparaiso, during the Year 1845.

A R T I C L E S.		Approximate Weight or Measure.		Prices Paid Farmers.			Prices Free on Board.			Price of Corn free on board per imperial quarter of eight bushels, in sterling money.		Rate of Freight to England on the 30th of June, 1845, per ton.	Approximate Extent of Stocks in Granary at Port of Valpa- raiso, including the minor Port of San Antonio.
English Name.	Description or Chilean Name.	Chilian.	English.	In Chilian Currency.	In Sterling Money. At 45d. per dollar the Cur. Exchange.	In Sterling Money. At 45d. per dollar the Par. Exchange.	In Chilian Currency.	In Sterling Money. At 45d. per dollar the Cur. Exchange.	In Sterling Money. At 45d. per dollar the Par. Exchange.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
Flour.....	superfine. seconds. red or candial.	per bag of 200 lbs. do.	about 202-39 lbs. do.	8 0	1 10 0	1 16 0	8 0	1 10 11½	1 17 1½	2 15 3½	2 15 3½	2,500 bags.	
Wheat.....	white. red or candial.	per fanega of 160 lbs. 150 "	162-318 lbs. or 2-03 bbls. 152-17 " " 1-90 "	5 6	1 1 6½	1 5 10½	6 0	1 2 6	1 7 0	3 3 3	3 3 3	500 "	
Barley.....	red or candial. cebada.	" 155 "	" " 1-96 "	3 3	0 12 2½	0 14 7½	3 3	0 13 7½	0 16 3½	6 6 3	6 6 3	5,000 fangs.	
Beans.....	garbanzos.	" 150 "	" " 1-96 "	3 3	0 11 8½	0 14 0½	3 3	0 12 7½	0 15 9½	2 11 7½	2 11 7½	10,000 "	
Chick pease....	mosto.	" 200 "	" " 1-96 "	1 3	0 5 17 0	0 6 2½	1 3	0 6 6½	0 7 10½	..	..	8,000 "	
Wine.....	vino.	" 150 "	" " 1-96 "	3 7	0 14 6½	0 17 5½	4 2	0 15 11½	0 19 1½	..	..	9,000 "	
Brandy.....	aguardiente.	arroba, of about six gallons, impl. mea. two quarts.	" " "	4 4	0 16 10½	1 0 3 3	4 4	0 17 4½	1 0 9½	..	..	2,000 "	
		one pint.	" " "	3 6	0 14 0½	0 16 10½	3 7	0 14 6½	0 17 5½	..	..	scarce.	
		lbs.	" " "	7 0	1 6 3 1	1 11 6	7 1	1 6 8½	1 12 0½	..	..	do.	
Hides, ox and cow.....	dry hung " staked. " salted.	qntl. of 100 lbs.	about 101-445 lbs. ..	10 0	1 17 6 2	5 0	10 7	2 0 9½	2 8 11½	..	..	3,000 qntl.	
Horns.....		per thousand.		9 0	1 13 9 2	0 6 6	9 7	1 17 0½	2 4 5½	..	..	3,500 "	
Tallow.....	melted or colado. raw or en rama.	per qntl. of 100 lbs.	about 101-145 lbs.	6 4	1 4 4½	1 9 3 3	24 0	4 10 0 5	8 0 2½	..	..	scarce.	
Hemp.....	cleaned. fine.	per qntl. of 100 lbs.		22 0	4 2 6 4	19 0 6	11 1	2 1 8½	2 10 0½	..	..	50,000 No.	
Biscuit.....	ordinary. nueces.	per fanega of 96 lbs.		11 0	2 1 3 2	9 6 6	9 9	1 14 2½	2 1 0½	..	..	500 quintals	
Walnuts.....	sweet shelled. charque.	per quintal of 100 "		9 0	1 13 9 2	0 6 6	9 9	1 14 2½	2 1 0½	..	..	1,500 "	
Almonds.....	grasa.	per botija or jar of 50 lbs.		6 0	1 2 6 1	7 0 4½	6 2	1 3 5½	1 8 1½	..	..	scarce.	
Jerked beef....	washed and picked. unwashed & unpicked.	per qntl. of 100 lbs. equal to 101.445 lbs.		4 4	0 17 9½	1 1 4½	4 7	0 18 5½	1 11 1½	..	..	2,000 quintals	
Suetfatorgrease	xarcia.	per quintal of 100 "		3 4	0 13 1½	0 15 9 3	3 7	0 14 0½	0 17 5½	..	..	5,000 "	
Wool, sheep's	cobre en barras.	per mark.		3 0	0 11 3 0	13 6 0	3 1	0 11 8½	0 14 0½	..	..	1,500 fans.	
Cordage.....	cobre en mineral.	per mark.		28 0	5 5 0 6	6 0 28	3 3	5 6 4½	6 7 8½	..	..	scarce.	
Copper.....		per mark.		7 4	1 8 1½	1 13 9 3	7 6	1 9 0½	1 14 10½	..	..	1,500 quintals	
Silver.....		per mark.		5 0	0 18 9 1	2 6 6	5 1	0 19 2½	1 3 0½	..	..	1,000 jars.	
Dollars.....		per mark.		10 0	1 17 6 2	5 0	10 7	2 0 9½	2 8 11½	..	..	1,500 quintals	
Gold.....		per mark.		6 6	1 15 3½	1 10 4½	7 0	1 6 3 1	11 6 1½	..	..	3,500 "	
		per mark.		13 0	2 8 9 1	2 18 6 8½	13 7	2 9 0½	2 19 0½	..	..	scarce.	
		per mark.		14 2	2 13 5½	3 4 1½	15 2	2 17 2½	3 8 7½	..	..	scarce.	
		per mark.		2 0	0 7 6 0	9 0 9	2 2	0 8 5½	0 10 1½	..	..	scarce.	
		per mark.		10 3	1 18 10½	2 6 8½	10 6	2 0 3½	2 8 4½	..	..	scarce.	
		per mark.		9 6	1 16 6½	2 3 10½	10 10	2 1 3 1½	2 6 1½	..	..	scarce.	
		per mark.		11 0	2 1 3 2	9 6 6	11 0	2 1 8 1½	2 10 0½	..	..	scarce.	
		per mark.		2 6	0 10 3½	0 12 4½	2 6	0 10 3½	0 12 4½	..	..	scarce.	

Gross Return of British and Foreign Trade at the Port of Valparaiso, in Chile, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1845.

N A T I O N S.	A R R I V E D.				D E P A R T E D.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Approximate Invoice Value of Cargoes in Pounds Sterling.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Approximate Invoice Value of Cargoes in Pounds Sterling.
	number.	tons.	number.	£	number.	tons.	number.	£
British.....	236	77,754	4,143		226	73,679	3,979	
Chilian.....	194	45,318	3,116		193	45,728	3,120	
Peruvian.....	19	3,162	225		16	2,646	191	
Ecuadorian.....	3	865	48		3	865	48	
Mexican.....	1	123	10		none.	none.	none.	
Spanish.....	12	3,171	184		12	3,361	194	
United States of America.....	54	17,838	930		47	15,389	802	
French.....	61	14,600	937		58	13,996	896	
Bremen.....	6	1,050	84		5	870	70	
Hamburg.....	31	5,706	387		29	5,657	371	
Danish.....	15	3,719	241		12	2,955	184	
Swedish.....	none.	none.	none.		1	366	18	
Norwegian.....	3	628	35		3	628	35	
Belgian.....	6	1,061	68		5	840	54	
Sardinian.....	10	2,193	134		10	2,142	133	
Austrian.....	1	232	14		1	232	14	
Total.....	652	177,420	10,556		621	169,354	10,109	

REMARKS.—It has not been possible to ascertain the nature and invoice value of cargoes.

NAVIGATION of Valparaiso, in 1842.

COUNTRIES FROM WHENCE CARRIED, AND DESTINATION.	Inward.		Outward.		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
EUROPE.						
England and Gibraltar.....	44	10,635	58	15,555	102	26,190
France.....	24	6,342	17	4,409	41	10,751
Hansetowns.....	24	5,969	5	1,118	29	7,087
Spain.....	5	1,651	2	476	7	2,127
Other countries.....	4	1,295			4	1,295
AMERICA.						
Peru.....	102	28,251	111	31,402	213	59,653
Bolivia.....	17	3,070	44	10,219	61	13,289
Mexico.....	21	5,510	22	5,152	43	10,662
United States.....	19	7,539	7	2,610	26	10,149
La Plata and Uruguay.....	32	8,081	4	1,001	36	9,082
Ecuador.....	12	3,730	17	4,746	29	8,476
Brazils.....	25	7,235	1	140	26	7,375
Central America.....	10	2,365	7	2,182	17	4,547
Other countries.....	2	342	1	126	3	468
ASIA, AUSTRALASIA, AND POLYNESIA.						
China, CochinChina, and Manilla.....	4	1,030	1	264	5	1,294
New Holland.....	18	5,479	3	580	21	6,059
New Zealand.....	7	1,719	4	725	11	2,444
Otaiti, Sandwich, &c.....	5	832	4	706	9	1,538
Marquesas Isles.....			3	979	3	979
Total.....	375	101,075	311	82,390	686	183,465
Total for the year 1841.....	369	96,334	343	88,790	712	185,124

The navigation of the Port of Valparaiso with foreigners, in 1842, compared to 1841, underwent a diminution of twenty-six vessels, measuring 1659 tons.

The French movement has not suffered: there was in the navigation between Valparaiso and France, an augmentation of eight vessels, and of 2585 tons. The intercourse, according to the preceding table, was effected exclusively under the French flag. The table of the French customs makes it (inward and outward bound, together) thirty vessels measuring 7253 tons. Of this number, one single vessel only belonged to a foreign flag.

Trade.—There is no official account published of the Chilian trade with the foreign

states. The continuation of hostilities between Peru and Bolivia, the suspension of relations with Guayaquil, the population of which has lately been diminished by the yellow fever, have, in 1842, caused a great decrease in the trade of the Port of Valparaiso.

Although the French vessels brought to Chile in 1842, took but inconsiderable cargoes, their sale was effected with unsatisfactory results, though without loss.

The most favourable period of the year for arrivals is the first fortnight of September. On the 18th of the month the principal national *fête* of the country takes place, and the public rejoicings attract many strangers to Valparaiso, who profit by this circumstance to make their purchases.

Lyons *silks* remain without competition in the market of Valparaiso, for their fine qualities and the finish of the designs. The *shawls* of levantine and serges were also in demand, but subject to the caprice of fashion. The French made embroidered *shawls*, China crapes, scarcely compete with those of China, where labour is so poorly required.

French *wines* had, for some time, sold well, but too many imports, for the wants of the place, caused a fall, in 1842, of one half in price, from twenty-four to ten piastres.

THE Average Charges for Freight during the Quarter have been :

C O U N T R I E S.		Per Ton.	Primage.	C O U N T R I E S.		Per Ton.	Primage.
		£ s. d.				£ s. d.	
England..	{ Copper ore to Swansea.	5 2 6	5 per cent.	Tahiti.....	12 dollars at 45d..	2 5 0	nil.
	{ Ditto to Liverpool.....	4 17 6	do.	Marquesas.....	12 " " "	2 5 0	do.
	{ Nitrate of soda.....	4 12 6	do.	Rio Janeiro....	} nominal.....	2 10 0	5 percent.
	{ Huano (no charters)....			Monte Video ..			
United States.....		3 15 0	nil.	Bueno Ayres..			
Hamburg		3 5 0	5 per cent.	Cobija	5 dollars at 45d.	0 18 9	nil.
France, 80 francs.....		3 2 0	do.	Intermedios.....	7 " "	1 6 3	do.
Any port in the United Kingdom, or on the continent of Europe, in German or Danish vessels.....			do.	Callao.....	8 " "	1 10 0	do.
Spain (no charters).....		3 5 0	do.	Payta.....	9 " "	1 13 9	do.
New Holland (no charters).....				Guayaquil.....	10 " "	1 17 6	do.
New Zealand (no charters).....				Panama.....	15 " "	2 16 3	do.
Sandwich Islands, 12 dollars at 45d..		2 5 0	nil.	Central America and Mexico, west coast of	15 " "	2 16 3	do.

Note.—The average charge for freight to England this day (30th of June, 1845) is from 5*l.* to 5*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* per ton with a primage of 5 per cent.

The extent of the stocks in granary, is of flour, 1,419,000 lbs. ; wheat, 34,680 bushels.

The course of exchange per current dollar is, on London, 44½*d.* to 45*d.* sterling ; Paris, 4 francs 75 centimes ; Hamburg, 40 schellings banco (2½ marks) ; United States of America, for government bills, 6 per cent premium ; ditto for masters of whalers, ditto, 2 per cent to 2½ per cent premium.

Since last return the nature and extent of the restraint imposed by law upon the exportation and importation of corn and grain remains unaltered in Chile.

Valparaiso 30th of June, 1845.

GROSS Return of British and Foreign Trade at the principal Ports within the Vice-Consulate of the Province of Concepcion de Chile during the year 1845.

N A T I O N S.	A R R I V E D.				D E P A R T E D.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	number.	tons.	number.	£	number.	tons.	number.	£
British	4	1,213	71	174,997	5	1,394	85	194,997
Chilian.....	96	15,207	973	..	92	14,286	917	..
American.....	67	22,211	1648	..	68	22,577	1673	..
French.....	7	2,219	169	..	7	2,319	169	..
Peruvian.....	11	1,906	149	..	9	1,549	122	..
Spanish.....	1	206	19	..	1	206	19	..
Ecuadorian.....	1	206	10	..	1	206	10	..
Total.....	187	43,168	3039		183	42,537	2995	
Total for 1844.....	182	41,685	3002		185	41,797	3054	

REMARKS.—During the year there touched at this port the British discovery ships *Herald* and *Pandora*, and the French admiral's ship *Virginie*.

British vessels in 1844, 8. Insured value of cargoes 79,500*l.*

GROSS Return of British and Foreign Trade at the principal Ports within the Vice-Consulate of Coquimbo, during the Year ending 31st of December, 1845.

PORT OF COQUIMBO, AND ADJACENT PORTS OF TONGOY AND TOTORALILLO.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	number.	tons.	number.	£ s. d.	number.	tons.	number.	£ s. d.
British	51	27,439	868	3,076 14 6	51	27,439	868	131,390 0 0
Chilian	69	9,360	754	129,376 0 0	69	9,360	754	9,490 0 0
American	10	3,786	165	..	10	3,786	165	67,431 0 0
French	3	688	48	..	3	688	48	7,062 0 0
Sardinian	1	202	13	548 0 0	1	202	13	..
Peruvian	1	200	13	606 0 0	1	200	13	..
Belgian	1	159	9	..	1	159	9	516 0 0
Total	136	41,834	1870	133,606 14 6	136	41,834	1870	215,889 0 0
Total for 1844	148	46,032	2153	150,030 0 0	148	40,032	2153	166,623 0 0

Coquimbo, 31st of December, 1845.

The total exports from the United States to Chile, in 1844, amounted to 1,105,221 dollars, and the total imports from Chile, to 750,370 dollars, showing a balance in favour of the United States, in 1844, of 354,851 dollars. In 1843 the balance was 191,907 dollars, and in 1842, it was 808,637 dollars:—

EXPORTS TO CHILE.	Amount.	IMPORTS FROM CHILE.	Amount.
	dollars.		dollars.
Fish, oil, and spermaceti candles	6,953	Bullion and specie	185,817
Staves, shingles, planks, &c.	7,535	Copper, pigs, bar, and old	355,842
Masts, spars, and naval stores	2,122	Dye-woods	3,345
Provisions, beef, and spirits	63,489	Leghorn, straw, and chip hats	18,833
Bread-stuffs	28,462	Wool, not exceeding seven cents per lb.	19,847
Tobacco	6,411	Cocoa	26,431
Wax	9,258	Hemp	2,234
Sugar	22,550	Manufactures	9,470
Manufactures of all kinds	703,951	Sundries, and non-enumerated	127,951
Non-enumerated, and sundries	5,914	Salt	600
Domestic exports	856,645	Total imports	750,370
Foreign exports	248,576		
Total exports	1,105,221		

CHILIAN TRADE WITH FRANCE DURING THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF THE YEAR 1843.

Navigation.—The number of vessels under the French flag, which arrived at Valparaiso during the first half year of 1843 increased in a remarkable manner, compared to the same period of 1842.

The arrivals amounted to twenty-six vessels of 7248 tons; and the departures to twenty-five vessels of 6401 tons. Ten vessels came direct from France, and seven were fitted out for this destination.

Trade.—The French products bought at Valparaiso sold off well; but not merchandises destined for Bolivia and Peru, countries where political dissensions continue to be very prejudicial to commercial operations.

The French manufactories begin to reap, in Chile, the fruit of the efforts which they have for some time made, to augment their transactions and struggle against foreign competition. Several French articles of silk have latterly obtained at Valparaiso a marked preference over similar Chinese products.

A fact to be remarked is, that France has succeeded to excel, in Chile, in its own silks, the *satins*, *serges*, *listonnerie*, *gros de naples*, and the *sewing silk* of China. Thus,

black *satins* of China, thirty-three inches broad, remain without buyers at the price of eleven rials, whereas black *satins* of France place themselves easily at twenty rials. The *serges* of China, offered at eight rials, and that of France at eleven rials; *gros de naples* of China, called *glazed*, of twenty-six inches in breadth, sells with difficulty at five rials; and that of France, of twenty-two inches, fetch from nine to eleven rials. The *listons* of China are completely neglected. In a word, French *silks* in general, have obtained a favour which was justified by the good quality of the stuffs exported. These facts will fix, no doubt, the attention of the French export trade.

China, besides, imported formerly by wholesale into Chile, *shawls* of *levantine sergées*, embroidered; the imitations which the French make of these tissues, are dispersed over the market, where they exclude those of China. A recent exportation of this French article has had equal success at Lima.

France has until now exceeded, in Chile, in the sale of shawls: by the elegance of their designs, the splendour of the colours, and particularly by the shades, *lilac*, *violet*, *lavender*, which the Chinese never could import, as they arrived nearly always *worm-eaten*, or damaged. But China still distinguishes itself by the quality of the principal material which it uses, by the strength of its shawls, the fringes of which are fuller than those of France.

Shawls, embroidered in the loom by machine, which the French designate *Chinese shawls of two colours*, cost in China, in the beginning of 1843, six piastres; similar French articles could not then be established for less than from forty francs to forty-two francs; and although the progress of the French manufactures have enabled them to be produced at a lesser price, the advantage is still on the side of China.

Ribbons are furnished almost exclusively by Switzerland and Germany.

IMPORTS into France from Chile in 1842.

M E R C H A N D I S E S.	Weight, Measure, or Quantity.	T R A D E.			
		G E N E R A L.		S P E C I A L.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			francs.		francs.
Copper, pure, of first fusion	kilograme.	525,700	1,051,400	377,900	775,800
— ore	ditto.	336,200	36,600	413,400	41,300
Nitrate of soda	ditto.	2,069,300	827,700	654,100	261,600
Bark of quinquina	ditto.	70,900	567,400	123,100	985,200
Mother-of-pearl	ditto.	163,500	359,800	156,800	344,900
Fruits for seed	ditto.	203,100	304,600	151,100	226,700
Cotton-wool	ditto.	151,700	273,100	59,400	106,900
Raw skins	ditto.	181,500	262,700	169,200	240,600
Indigo	ditto.	16,200	259,600	25,900	413,800
Cocoa	ditto.	187,400	168,700	112,700	101,400
Balms	ditto.	5,500	66,000	125	2,700
Remains of gold and silver work	ditto.	2,100	64,100	2,100	64,100
Cochineal	ditto.	1,000	31,100	2,700	80,300
Dyeing woods	ditto.	155,000	31,000	145,500	29,100
Pearls, real	grammes.	1,500	30,000	1,500	30,000
Wool	kilogrames.	15,400	25,800	3,400	4,200
Tin, raw	ditto.	17,100	25,700	27,900	41,900
Coffee	ditto.	26,000	22,100	87,600	74,500
Other articles			58,500		55,100
Total			4,459,900		3,860,100
PRECEDING YEARS.					
1841			4,183,000		3,705,500
1840			2,893,000		4,209,000
1839			4,541,000		3,761,000
1838			3,308,000		3,369,000
1837			5,202,000		2,427,000
Average decennial 1827—36			2,831,000		1,591,000

EXPORTS from France to Chile in 1842.

M E R C H A N D I S E S.	Weight, Measure, or Quantity.	T R A D E.			
		G E N E R A L.		S P E C I A L.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			francs.		francs.
Tissues, of silk	kilogrames.	26,600	2,678,700	16,600	1,971,100
— of wool	ditto	42,200	1,314,700	41,400	1,302,000
— of cotton	ditto.	32,303	696,300	23,100	462,100
— of flax and hemp	ditto.	10,400	213,200	8,500	179,500
Drinkables—wines	hectolitres.	12,557	731,600	12,550	730,600
— brandy, and liquors	ditto.	1,471	189,600	1,398	181,900
Paper and its applications	kilogrames.	286,000	864,500	283,900	858,500
Perfumery	ditto.	104,300	730,400	104,300	730,400
Mercery	ditto.	60,500	505,500	58,900	464,700
Skins, worked	ditto.	13,600	344,500	13,600	344,500
— prepared	ditto.	26,500	168,200	24,400	155,000
Wearing apparel	ditto.	23,000	460,000	23,000	460,000
Pottery, glasses, and crystals	francs.		429,000		407,000
Utensils and metal works	kilogrames.	82,500	398,100	82,300	397,500
Fashions	francs.		161,400		157,700
Arms	kilogrames.	25,400	160,800	4,000	29,800
Medicines, made up	ditto.	15,000	139,400	15,000	139,400
Toys	ditto.	13,000	106,700	11,400	100,100
Plates, of metal	ditto.	9,300	93,000	9,300	93,000
Gold and silver ware	grammes.	37,570	90,600	33,570	82,000
Felts	francs.		89,000		89,000
Divers articles of Parisian in- dustry	kilogrames.	9,100	80,200	9,100	80,200
Writing or printing ink	ditto.	15,400	77,200	15,400	77,200
Other articles			86,200		742,400
Total			11,608,800		10,235,600
PRECEDING YEARS.					
1841			14,151,000		12,524,000
1840			14,978,000		12,964,600
1839			11,017,000		8,759,000
1838			7,684,000		6,027,000
1837			6,267,000		4,730,000
Average decennial 1827—36			4,662,000		3,810,000

CHILIAN MINES.

By an old Spanish law still in force in Chile, every encouragement is given to search for mines. The discoverer may work a mine in any ground, by paying five shillings; and before paying this he may try, even in the garden of another man, for twenty days. In the copper-mines, the men have little time allowed for their meals; and during both summer and winter they begin when it is light, and leave off at dark. (In Chile the summer days are shorter, and the winter days longer, than in England.) They are (at the mines of Jajuel) paid about one pound sterling a month, together with food. This food consists of sixteen figs, and two small loaves of bread for breakfast, boiled beans for dinner, and broken roasted wheat grain for supper. They scarcely ever taste meat. They have to clothe themselves and to support their families with this pound per month.

On arrival at the gold-mines of Yaquil (Jajuel), Mr. Darwin was surprised at the pale appearance of the men. The mine is 450 feet deep, and each man brings up nearly two hundred weight of ore. With this load they have to climb up the alternate notches cut in the trunks of trees placed in a zig-zag line up the shaft. The men (who are quite naked, except drawers) ascend with this heavy load from the bottom. Even young men, eighteen or twenty years of age, do this, although their muscular development of body is far from completed.

Mr. Darwin says, that the *apires* live entirely on boiled beans and bread; they would prefer the bread alone, but the masters, finding that they cannot work so hard upon this, insist on their eating the beans also. Their pay is from twenty-four to twenty-eight shillings a month; they leave the mine only once in three weeks, when

they stay with their families for two days. As a means of preventing the men from abstracting any of the gold, or gold ore, the owners establish a very summary and stringent tribunal. Whenever the superintendent finds a lump of ore secreted for theft, its full value is stopped out of the wages of all the men, so that they watch over each other, each having a direct interest in the honesty of all the rest.

The amount of labour they undergo is greater than that of slaves; being to a certain extent masters of their own actions, they bear up against what would wear down most men. Living for weeks together in the most desolate spots, when they descend to the villages on feast-days there is no excess or extravagance into which they do not run. They occasionally gain a considerable sum, and then, like sailors with prize-money, they soon squander it. They drink excessively, buy quantities of clothes, and in a few days return to the mines without a penny. It is observed by Mr. Darwin, that this thoughtlessness, as with sailors, is the result of the mode in which they are made dependent upon others rather than on themselves. Their daily food is found them, and they acquire no habitual care as to the means of subsistence; while the temptation to enjoyment and the means of paying for it occur at the same times. How different is this from the system in Cornwall, where the men think for themselves, and form an intelligent body.

The miners here spoken of are a different set of men from the *apires*, who are those that bring up the heavy burdens. The miners dig the ore from the bowels of the mine while the *apires* are simply labourers, much like the bricklayers' labourers, but who carry less heavy loads, and up a much less height. Mr. Darwin illustrates the extraordinary labour which the *apires* undergo:—"According to the general regulation, the *apire* is not allowed to halt for breath, except the mine is six hundred feet deep. The average load is considered as rather more than 200 pounds, and I have been assured that one of 300 pounds (twenty-two stones and a half), by way of a trial, has been brought up from the deepest mine! At the time the *apires* were bringing up the usual load twelve times in the day, that is, 2400 pounds from eighty yards deep; and they were employed in the intervals in breaking and picking ore. These men, excepting from accidents, are healthy and appear cheerful—their bodies are not very muscular. They rarely eat meat once a week, and never oftener, and then only the hard dry charqui (dried beef). Although with a knowledge that the labour is voluntary, it was, nevertheless, quite revolting to see the state in which they reached the mouth of the mine; their bodies bent forward, leaning with their arms on the steps, their legs bowed, the muscles quivering, the perspiration streaming from their faces over their breasts, their nostrils distended, the corners of their mouth forcibly drawn back, and the expulsion of their breath the most laborious, each time, from habit, they utter an articulate cry of 'ay-ay,' which ends in a sound rising from deep in the chest, but shrill like the note of a fife. After staggering to the pile of ores, they emptied the 'carpacho;' in two or three seconds recovering their breath, they wiped the sweat from their brows, and, apparently quite fresh, descended the mine again at a quick pace. This appears to me a wonderful instance of the amount of labour which habit (for it can be nothing else) will enable a man to endure."

At a copper-mine Mr. Darwin was told that the Chilian miners had no conception of the value of copper pyrites (a rich ore of copper) until informed of the circumstance by miners from this country: the Chilians laughed at the English for entertaining such a notion; but the English afterwards turned the laugh against them, by making a profitable use of some veins of this ore, which they had bought for a mere trifle.

The mining system of Chile is generally conducted as follows:—There are two principal persons concerned in almost every mine, the *proprietor* and the *habilitador*: the first, or the actual miner, lives at his hacienda or farm, and attends to the details of working the ore. The *habilitador* resides at one or other of the sea-port towns; he is the mining capitalist, by whose means the miner is enabled to proceed with his work. The *habilitadores* are generally diligent and prudent men; the proprietor or miner is too often improvident. The proprietor farms his own ground, obtaining from his farm vegetables and sometimes live stock for the subsistence of his miners. The melting-house is also generally built on his hacienda, and the ore is brought to his door on the backs of mules. These farmer-miners rarely work a mine with their own unassisted capital; they are seldom wealthy, and when they are so, it is found more advantageous to share with

the habilitador, who takes charge of the business part of the concern. The miner is frequently without funds, and is at the mercy of the habilitador, who makes what terms he pleases.

The Chilian system has, however, undergone some change by the introduction of foreign capital.

There are at Coquimbo some considerable French trade-houses. Mr. Lambert, who was educated at the Polytechnic school, in France, has constructed reverberatory furnaces, said to be the best in Chile.

Coquimbo is the centre of the copper-mine trade, and Copiapo of the silver-mines. It has been calculated that this latter port sent to Europe, by way of Valparaiso, from 1831 to 1841, twelve millions of piastres worth of silver, in bars, about 2,650,000*l.* sterling

A great number of foreign vessels, who visit the coasts of the Pacific Ocean, go to Coquimbo, Huasco, and Copiapo, to bring away copper ore, chiefly for England and the United States.

The mines of the province of Coquimbo are in the Cordilleras, and in the hills toward the sea, and in the chain of mountains of the interior. The richness of the ore have caused these mines to be chiefly those explored.

By a law of the Chilian congress which came into operation in 1841, the *exportation of flour and corn is free of duty.*

By a law, dated March 8, 1841, *foreign wines and spirits* pay a *transit duty* at the

Rate of, per case or cask, of twelve bottles $\frac{1}{8}$ rials per month.

„	per cask, under 9 gallons	$\frac{1}{2}$	„	„
„	„ from 10 to 20 gallons	1	„	„
„	„ „ 21 to 30 „	$1\frac{1}{2}$	„	„
„	„ „ 31 to 60 „	$2\frac{1}{2}$	„	„
„	„ „ 61 to 80 „	3	„	„
„	„ „ 81 to 100 „	4	„	„
„	„ „ 101 to 120 „	5	„	„
„	„ „ 120 and upwards	6	„	„

Hides with the hair on, skins of Guanaco, Vicuna, or Alpaca; wool in the fleece, washed or unwashed; suet or fat; tallow; common salt in stones or bags, with the exception of salt in small boxes; silver bullion; silver, wrought or unwrought; trinkets, of gold, of silver, or precious stones, imported in transit, upon re-exportation by sea, are charged with a *transit duty* of two per cent, with the exception of metals in bullion, in a wrought or unwrought shape; and of trinkets of gold, of silver, or of precious stones, which are only charged, on re-exportation, with an *ad valorem transit duty* of one-quarter per cent. None of these articles, however, if cleared from home consumption, pay any transit duty at all, but simply the import duty. And, in either case, whether cleared for home consumption or for re-exportation, for each bill of entry the customs claim *two dollars* currency.

By a law dated December 30, 1840, *copper minerals*, calcined or in “eyes,” when exported to foreign ports are charged with a municipal duty of one and a half per cent.

CHAPTER XIII.

CUSTOMS REGULATIONS AND TARIFF OF CHILE.

A DECREE establishing a statistical board was passed in 1843. Copiapo declared a major port. Importation of foreign coal permitted through the ports of Papuda, Tongoi, Totoralillo, Chanarol, Pena Blanca, and La Herradara; but only from major ports. Bills of health must be brought by vessels signed by Chilian consuls.

TARIFF OF THE OFFICIAL VALUATIONS OF NATIONAL AND FOREIGN MERCHANDISE.

THE Chilean Custom Duties are generally levied on the Valuation. Duties on the Value are levied according to a specified Tariff of Prices as follows :

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts. ad valorem.	per cent. ad valorem.
Acids, muriaticlb.	0 80	20	Musical boxes with cylinder, small pocket, from three to six inches longeach	2 50	10
— tartaricdo.	0 80		— others large, from ten to twenty do.do.	16 0	
— nitricdo.	0 36		Caps, cottondoz.	1 75	30
Silver, barsmarc	8 50	6	— wooldo.	2 0	
— leaf, Hojuelas, realoz.	2 75	5	Bullets, cannon-balls, and shot :		
— do. imitationlb.	2 25	20	Bullets and shot, balas of lead		
— do. Libritos (for silvering) containing twenty leaves each, and up to three inches square, realeach	0 40	5	— qntl.	7 0	
— do. imitationgross	2 0	20	— municion, for sporting...do.	8 0	
— wire, Briscado, realoz.	2 75	5	Cannon-balls, bombs, grenades, and other missiles of warfare		
— do. imitationlb.	2 25	20	— qntl.	3 0	
— manufactured, ungilt.. marc	16 0	5	Bottles, pitchers, and jars, &c. :		
— do. olddo.	7 0	6	Alcarazas, of stone, for water, with or without covers, from eight to twelve inches high		
Firearms and military weapons :			— doz.	6 0	
Military swords, ornamented with brass, without belts...each	5 0	20	Botellas of black glass, ordinary		
Foilspair	1 0		— do.	0 50	
Military sabres in steel or leather scabbardseach	2 0	vide the law of 1831, Article V.	Botellones of glass, do.....gall.	0 20	
Heavy artillery, bronzeqntl.	15 0	20	Damajuanas of glass, empty, containing from two to three gallonseach	0 25	
— irondo.	2 0		— containing from four to five gallons.....do.	0 50	
Guns and carbines, carabinas			Buttons :—		
— each	2 50	20	Shirt, de alambra.....gross	0 18	
— fusiles.....do.	5 0	20	— ivory.....do.	0 75	
Percussion caps1000	0 30	2	— mother-of-pearl (same as ivory)		
Anchors, large and small...qntl.	8 0	20	— bone, do.		
Mining apparatus.....do.	6 0	30	— porcelain, do.		
Billiard tables, not including the clotheach	200 0	30	— metal, common, do.		
— ballsdoz.	12 0	30	— do. plated, large and plain for miner's usedo.	9 0	20
— cues.....do.	9 0	30	Other kind with shanks, plain or fancy, of whalebone or of horn		
Biscuit, common, sea.....qntl.	4 0	30	— do.	0 37½	
— best, sweet.....lb.	0 25		— large or small, gilt or plated		
— do. not sweet.....qntl.	10 0	10	— do.	6 0	
Prussian blue, pure.....lb.	1 0		— do. othersdo.	0 87½	
— mixeddo.	0 25	specified duty.	— metal, common, so called charquisillodo.	0 20	
Distilled spirits :—		specified duty.	— without shanks, pierced with two or more holes, of whalebone, metal, and bone		
Anisette in bottles and canastos (baskets)..canasto or two bottles	1 0	25	— do.	0 20	
Beer, in bottles..... 12 botiles	2 0	50	— do. large or small, covered with any kind of tissue....do.	0 68	
— in any other vesselgall.		50	Button-moulds, pierced with one or more holes, of wood, horn, and bonedo.	0 12½	
Cider, in bottles..... 12 bottles	2 0	50	Braziers or stoves of copper or brass, of the ordinary shape. lb.	0 62½	
— in any other vesselgall.		50	— cast, from ten to fifteen inches diameter at the surface		
Brandy and spirits of wines, viz. : Aguardiente of wine .. 12 bottles	3 0		— doz.	12 0	
— do. in any other vessel			— metal, beehive shape, ornamented, from twenty to twenty-six inches high, with or without teapoteach	10 0	
gall.	1 0		Braces, cotton, spun, common, with buckles and leathers. doz.	0 75	
— Espiritu of winelb.	0 50	ad valorem.	— do. without buckles, leather, or India rubber.....do.	0 50	
— Geneva, in stone or glass bottles 12 bottles	2 0	specified duty.	— do. knitted.....do.	0 75	
— do. in any other vessel			— mixed, India rubber....do.	2 0	
gall.		50	— do. silk and do.....do.	4 0	
Liqueurs, mistelas or rosolis, in bottles 12 bottles	3 0	ad valorem.	— elastic, in parcels of four pair..... parcel	0 25	35
Rum (same as brandy)					
Vinegar, commongall.	0 25	30			
— à la roselb.	0 75	20			
Wines, red, in bottles.. 12 bottles	3 0	specified duty.			
— do. in any other vessel					
gall.		50			
— white, in bottles.. 12 bottles	2 0	50			
— do. in any other vessel					
gall.		75			

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Brushes, brochas (paint-brushes) doz.	1 50	20	Men's caps, with or without cap-fronts, large or small, oil-skin doz.	5 0	30
— bruzas, for horsesdo.	3 0		— cap-fronts, of leather....do.	0 75	
— cepillos, hair, clothes' and table brushes.....do.	4 0		Straw, Colombiado.	26 0	
— do. nail and teeth brushes do.	0 75		— European, for children, trimmed and not trimmed...do.	13 50	
— do. shoe brushes.....do.	2 0		— do. for women, large rimmed, without trimmings do.	30 0	
— escobillones, with or without handledo.	4 0	35	— do. cut into the shape of caps, with trimmingsdo.	48 0	30
Coffee, with or without husks qntl.	9 50		— do. without trimmings ..do.	27 0	
Coffee-pots, containing from one to five pintas, tin, unvarnished doz.	6 0	30	— do. for mendo.	36 0	
— do. British metal, not plated do.	18 0	20	— Peru, coarse, ordinary quality, called media tarea or petate.....do.	1 12½	
Bird cages up to twenty-two inches long, of woodeach	2 0	20	— from elsewhere, for sailors, ordinarydo.	3 0	
— do. wire (same as of wood)			— do. for children, of a better quality, and dyed ...do.	3 0	30
Drawers, knitted, cotton....doz.	6 50	35	— do. other kind, not dyed, called machitos.....do.	4 50	
— do. wool, mixed with cotton and unmixed.....do.	10 0		— do. small rimdo.	6 0	
Furniture:—			— do. Breguet fashion, same quality as machitos.....do.	8 0	
Sofas and canopies, ebony, mahogany, and other wood, with horse-hair and other cushions each	60 0	30	— called Breguetdo.	15 0	
— of other inferior kind of wood, varnished.....do.	10 0		Felt, varnished, for sailors...do.	10 0	20
— do. cane.....do.	16 0		— common sheep-wool for children, trimmed.....each	1 25	
Chairs, ebony, mahogany, and other kind of wood, without arms, with horsehair and other cushions.....doz.	80 0		— do. not trimmed.....do.	1 0	
— do. with cane bottoms...do.	40 0		Silk and cotton plush, round, trimmeddo.	2 50	
— other wood, varnished, with wood bottoms.....do.	15 0	30	Fur, not trimmed, military, and for nunsdo.	6 0	35
— do. with straw do.....do.	20 0		— round, trimmeddo.	4 0	
— do. with cane do.....do.	30 0		— do. not trimmeddo.	2 50	
— made wholly of cane ...do.	30 0		Silk, for women, trimmed and ornamenteddoz.	48 0	
— arm, varnished wood, with or without cushionsdo.	48 0		Bands and ribbons for trimming, of parchment, morocco, and other leather and tissue, &c. do.	0 87½	
Cards, playing, Spanish (monopolised).			Lint.....lb.	0 75	20
— do. others than Spanish gross	18 0	20	Ploughs and plough shares, of iron.....qntl.	8 0	
— visiting, enamelled, gilt or not gilt.....100	0 75		Cauldrons, digesters, and sauce-pans:—		
— do. not enamelled, white and coloureddo.	0 40		Baldes of iron, with handles doz.	10 0	
Charts and topographical maps, &c.	duty free.	duty free.	Fondos of cast iron, not tinned, of from 100lbs. weight and upwards.....qntl.	6 0	
Saucepans of iron, tinned, Nos. 1 o 12doz.	7 0	20	Pailas and peroles, from 8lb. to 95lb. weight, of copper.....lb.	0 40	20
— enamelleddo.	9 0		— of wrought iron.....do.	0 12½	
Belts, of leather, for children do.	2 0		— of cast iron tinned.....do.	0 8	
— sword, plain.....do.	8 0		— do. not tinned qntl.	6 0	
Hoops, wood, of every description.....qntl.	3 0	30	Tachos, of ordinary size, up to three pintas, of red copper doz.	5 0	35
— iron.....do.	3 50	10	— do. of iron.....do.	3 0	
White lead.....do.	8 0	20	Socks for infant children, of cotton or wool.....do.	1 0	
Iron chains, above half-an-inch in diameter.....do.	8 0	2	Shirts:—		
— other kind for dogs, traces, &c.....do.	12 0	10	Of cotton, white and coloured, mixed with flax....do.	12 0	
Candlesticks, tin, and of varnished sheet irondoz.	2 0	20	— do. other kind.....do.	6 0	20
— brass, ordinarydo.	3 0		Of flax and hemp.....do.	26 0	
Candles, spermacetilb.	0 37½		Of wool (of baize) for sailors..do.	10 0	
— wax, mixed and unmixed do.	0 50		Blackening, viz.:—		
— stearine.....do.	0 30		In tin boxes, of from five to six ounces, raw.....doz.	0 62½	10
— tallowdo.	0 15	35	In paste, in cakeslb.	0 25	
Hats, caps, and bonnets, viz:—			Liquid, in earthen pots, of from 18 to 20 ounces, raw.....doz.	0 75	
Men's caps, with or without cap fronts, large and small, of stuffs, cloth, plain, without trimmings.....each	1 50	30	do. 28 to 30 do. do.do.	1 25	
— do. other kinddoz.	8 0		do. 40 to 46 do. do.do.	2 0	
— do. skin, otter.....each	1 75		Wax, white and yellow.....qntl.	50 0	
— do. other kind (same as otter).			Sealing-wax in sticks.....lb.	0 75	
			Scissors, viz.:—		2
			Shears, formories (ordinary) up to two inches broaddoz.	1 25	

(continues)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Scissors:—(continued)			Boots and Shoes:—(continued)		
Shears, escopelos, up to one inch in width.....doz.	50		— do. for women, of goats' skin, embroidered.....doz.	7 0	
Tijeras (scissors) with legs and small scissors, of one ajo (scissors for horse trimming)....do.	3 50		— do. plain.....do.	6 0	
— for tailors, with large screw, from 10 to 13 inches long....do.	18 0		— do. of morocco leather or calf-skin.....do.	7 0	
— do. without screw, from 8 to 12 inches.....do.	6 0	20	— do. of satin or any other description of stuff.....do.	7 0	
— sheep shears, common...do.	1 50		— cut only (cortes) not made up, of goats' skin, embroidered 12 pairs	3 50	
— for cutting tin for goldsmith's work.....do.	4 0		— do., plain.....do.	3 0	
— common, of cast iron, for dressmakers, up to five inches do.	0 12½		— do., of morocco leather...do.	2 0	
— do. others from five to eight inches long.....do.	0 62½		Braid and cord, of cotton.....lb.	1 25	
Nails, viz:—			— of wool.....do.	2 0	
Of copper and composition longer than one inch.....qntl.	30 0	2	Cord of silver.....oz.	1 50	
Of iron, longer than one inch...do.	6 0		— gold.....do.	3 0	
— brads.....lb.	0 12		Horns, astas of cattle, whole per 1000	30 0	
— for horse-shoeing.....qntl.	12 0		— do. tips of.....do.	10 0	
Rivets of copper.....do.	30 0		— cuerno, of stag, entire or not.....lb.	0 15	
— of iron.....do.	12 0		Cotton-wool, not picked....qntl.	3 75	
Broad-headed, used for ornamenting trunks, of bronze, and also of copper.....per 1000	0 80	15	— picked.....do.	8 0	
Other kinds, less than one inch long, of copper.....lb.	0 50		Painters' colours of every kind, prepared.....lb.	0 9	20
— of iron, &c.....do.	0 18		Knives:—		
Glue, in cakes.....do.	0 15	20	Cuchillones, for carpenters' and coopers' use.....doz.	8 0	
Isinglass.....do.	1 50		— for carriers' use, double-bladed.....do.	40 0	
Collars and Cravats, viz:—			Cuchillos, for butchers' use, not exceeding eight inches long, and hunting knives.....do.	1 25	
Corbates, for sailors, of wool only or mixed with cotton.....doz.	2 50	20	— do., belduques.....do.	0 37½	
Corbatines for men, of all kinds, of stuff.....do.	6 0		— do., table-knives, carving-knives, with horn or bone handles, and the blade from six to ten inches.....do.	1 25	20
Cuellos for men, of cotton....do.	1 0	35	— do., with forks, superior, with ivory handles, for fruit do.	4 0	
— of flax.....do.	3 0		— do., other kind.....do.	5 0	
Ropes, Jarcia, viz:—			— do., common, with handles of whalebone, wood, horn, iron, and bone.....do.	1 50	
Of hemp, and of every other material, white and tarred...qntl.	10 0	20	Navajas, for sailors' use.....do.	0 75	
— old, not fit for use.....do.	3 0		Chalks, in wooden cases, common.....gross	1 0	
Strings for Musical Instruments.			— for carpenters' use.....do.	2 0	20
Alambre (metallic), for all kinds of instruments in general...lb.	0 75		Castors of pottery, common, up to four inches high....per 100	2 0	
Cuerdas (gut), for guitars and violins.....gross	2 0	20	— superior, of slate colour..lb.	0 8	
Eutorchados (strings wound round with metallic wires) do.	4 50		— do. other kind, not exceeding four inches high.....doz.	0 75	20
Boots, viz:—			Spoons, viz:—		
Of calf skin, ready made....each	4 0	35	Cucharas, of copper, plated, for tea or coffee.....do.	0 75	
— legs of, in parcels of four per parcel	1 0		— do., other kind.....do.	1 50	
— strips of leather for trimmings.....doz.	1 0	30	— of iron, tinned, for tea or coffee.....gross	1 25	
Lace-up boots, for women...do.	12 0		— do., other kind.....do.	2 50	
— for men.....do.	20 0	35	— of white metal, German silver, for tea or coffee.....doz.	1 50	
Boots and shoes, viz:—			— do., other kinds of the ordinary size.....do.	3 0	20
Slippers, common, of cotton, wool, and skin, for women and men doz.	6 0		— do., English, for tea or coffee.....gross	3 0	
— trimmed with silk, for women, or otherwise trimmed and ornamented.....do.	10 0	35	— do., other kind.....do.	6 0	
Shoes, zapatones (galoches), of oil-calf-skin, for men.....do.	20 0	35	Soup spoons, cucharones, of German silver.....doz.	12 0	
— (zapatones) of India-rubber for women and for men.....do.	10 0	20	— of tinned iron.....do.	1 50	
— do. manufactured, for boys, of calf-skin, up to seven inches long.....do.	8 0		— of British metal.....do.	2 50	
— do. other kind, for sailors do.	10 0		Cuirass of metal.....each	5 0	
— do. other kind common..do.	12 0		Copper and Brass, viz:—		
— for girls, up to seven inches long, of morocco leather and of calf-skin.....do.	3 0	35	Cobre (red), in bars or ingots, for exportation.....qntl.	13 0	6
— do. of every kind of tissue do.	3 0		— sheet copper.....lb.	0 30	2
			— worked up into common pieces, weighing 8lbs. and upwards.....do.	0 40	20
			— old, not fit for use...qntl.	13 0	2

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Copper and Brass:—(continued)			Thread:—(continued)		
Cobre, red, in small pieces, for exportation.....qntl.	8 0	7½	— of spun wool, other kind, white and coloured.....lb.	2 0	30
Brass, sheet.....lb.	0 32	20	— of flax, white, called "of Flanders," of from the Nos. 20 to 120.....do.	2 50	
— wire (alambre), for musical instruments.....do.	0 75		— do. coloured, ordinary, for sewing.....do.	0 40	20
— do., other kind.....do.	0 30		Phials.....dozen	3 0	
— in flat or round hoops for ornamenting carriages.....do.	0 75		Artificial flowers.....do.	7 0	30
Mettalles de cobre for exportation, mineral ore, raw.....qntl.	1 75	7½	Trees, for boots.....pair	3 0	
— do., calcined or burnt...do.	2 0		— for hats.....each	1 50	20
— in the first stage of manufacture (first fusion).....do.	3 0	30	— for shoes.....pair	0 50	
Dates.....lb.	0 20		Fringes of cotton, white and coloured.....yard	0 8	20
Dice (dados), of ivory, mother-of-pearl, and bone.....doz.	0 50	20	— pure, of wool, white and coloured, & mixed with cotton.do.	0 10	
Thimbles, of steel, of iron, of white and yellow metal..gross	1 50	20	Cheese.....lb.	0 18	30
— rempujos, for sail-makers do.	2 0	20	Galloons, &c., viz.:—		
Mineral waters, in ordinary bottles.....12 bottles	1 50	20	Franjas of wool (see Guichas.)		
Cologne water, in long narrow bottles, of common glass....do.	0 50		Galones of gold and silver, real ounce	2 75	5
Orange flower water, in ordinary bottles.....do.	6 0		— do. do. imitation...lb.	2 25	20
Lavender water, in half-bottles 12 half-bottles	2 0		Guichas of cotton, for braces, mixed with silk, with India-rubber, of one-half to one inch broad.....yard	0 12½	35
Spirits of turpentine.....gall.	0 75	20	— do. do. of more than one and not exceeding two inches broad.....do.	0 25	
Enamel, in ordinary leaves...lb.	2 50		— do. for boot straps, do. do. one and a half inches broad.do.	0 12½	
— cut into pieces of divers shapes, for artificial flowers do.	4 0		— of wool for carriage trimmings, from one and a half do. do. three inches broad, for liveries, &c., pure.....do.	0 30	
— do., with stones, for flowers and other purposes.....gross	1 50	20	— do. do. mixed with cotton.do.	0 30	35
Emery, for polishing.....qntl.	9 0	20	— do. do. mixed with silk..do.	0 30	
Anvils, of iron.....do.	8 50	20	Gloves of cotton, knitted, with or without fingers (mittens)..doz.	1 25	
Ink, viz.:—			— of wool, unmixed and mixed with cotton.....do.	2 0	
Chinese, in cakes, for drawing lb.	1 25	20	— of leather, of doe skin..do.	4 0	35
Writing ink, in small bottles, from four to five ounces' weight including the bottle12 bot.	0 37½		— do. of kid, long gloves, and other kind.....do.	6 0	
— in earthen pots of one pinta 12 pots	2 0		Waistcoats, camisetas, knitted (under-waistcoats), of cotton do.	6 50	
Printing ink.....lb.	0 18½		— do. of wool, unmixed and mixed with cotton.....do.	10 50	
Pins, alfileres, common, in papers or en masse, of every size, including the paper in which they are set.....lb.	0 40	20	— chalecos, mixed or unmixed, of wool, unmixed or mixed, of silk.....each	2 0	20
— horquillos, hair pins, including the paper in which they are set, and also that in which they are packed, of iron and of brass.....do.	0 30		— do. of every other kind..do.	1 0	
Essences of all kinds, except of roses.....do.	3 0		Grain, pearled barley....quintal	10 0	
Tin, in pigs.....qntl.	12 0		— rice.....do.	4 0	30
Currycombs.....doz.	1 75	20	— dried pease.....do.	6 0	
Leathern cases, for hats....each	2 25	30	Ships' scrapers, with or without handles.....dozen	3 0	20
— for sporting guns.....doz.	10 0	20	— do. for whitewashers, with wooden handles.....do.	3 50	
Sickles, with handles.....do.	1 50		Gridirons, of iron.....quintal	12 0	20
Steel, raw.....qntl.	7 0	10	Jews'-harps for children...gross	1 0	30
Cast iron.....do.	0 50		Guitars, with case.....each	7 0	10
Tin, in sheets, not exceeding 14 inches long...case of 225 pieces	9 50	10	— without case.....do.	4 0	
— do. 20 do.	15 0		Cloaks and Coats, viz.:—		
— case of 112 pieces	10 0		Cloaks of wool for women, of mixed or unmixed stuffs, short or long with or without sleeves, embroidered.....do.	22 0	35
Horse shoes.....qntl.	2 50		— do. do. other kind of one or several colours.....do.	14 0	
Irons, for ironing.....doz.	2 50	20	— for men, of cloth.....do.	25 0	
Thread of the aloe bark, not twisted.....lb.	0 25		Capotes of bouracau, &c., for men, capes, mackintoshes..do.	10 0	
— do. do. twisted..do.	0 35		— do. do. other kind....do.	8 0	20
— of hemp, for shoemakers and for sailmakers....quintal	25 0		Frock coats, of cashmire, of cloth do.	10 0	
— of cotton, for sewing, on reels of 100 yards of thread each.....gross	2 25		Dress coats, do. do.do.	12 0	
— do. do. other kind, white and coloured.....lb.	0 62½	20	Axes and pickaxes for carpenters, azuelas, with handles.doz.	6 0	20
— of spun wool, for embroidering.....do.	2 0		— do. without handles..do.	3 50	
			— do. hachas.....do.	10 0	
			— do. hachitas, with or without handles.....do.	5 0	

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Axes and pickaxes—(continued.)			Mats and matting—(continued.)		
— for grubbing up.....quintal	8 0	20	— felpudos of straw, up to		
Hoes of iron, without handles.do.	8 0		50 inches long.....dozen	7 0	20
Lanterns:—			— petates of Guatemala,		
— of glass, oval, being in			painted.....square vare	0 20	
height up to seven inches.each	0 40	30	— do. of Manilla, coloured.do.	0 12½	20
— do. above seven and up to			— do. of Peru, white.....do.	0 32	
ten inches.....do.	0 80		Mirrors and looking-glasses:		
— do. above ten and up to			— of 3 to 6 inches long, in-		
fourteen inches.....do.	1 75		cluding frame.....doz.	0 25	
— do. above fourteen and up			— in wooden cases, from 6 to		
to eighteen inches.....do.	4 0		12 inches, including case...do.	2 25	
— do. above eighteen and up			— with frames of painted or		
to twenty-two inches.....do.	6 0		gilt wood, from 8 to 12 inches		
— do. above twenty-two and			long, including frame.....do.	4 0	
up to twenty-six inches.....do.	8 0	35	inches.		30
— do. above twenty-six and up			from 13 to 16...each	1 50	
to thirty inches.....do.	12 0		„ 17-20....do.	3 50	
— round, being in height up			„ 21-24....do.	7 0	
to seven inches.....do.	0 25		„ 25-29....do.	13 0	
— do. above seven and up to			„ 30-32....do.	18 0	
ten inches.....do.	0 50		„ 33-35....do.	25 0	
— do. above ten and up to			„ 36-38....do.	35 0	
fourteen inches.....do.	1 0		„ 39-41....do.	45 0	
— do. above fourteen and up			„ 42-44....do.	55 0	
to eighteen inches.....do.	2 0	2	Looking-glasses in		35
— do. above eighteen and up			frames.		
to twenty-two inches.....do.	4 0		„ 45-47....do.	65 0	
— do. above twenty-two and			„ 48-50....do.	75 0	
up to twenty-six inches...do.	6 0		„ 51-53....do.	85 0	
— do. above twenty-six and			„ 54-56....do.	100 0	
up to thirty inches.....do.	10 0		„ 57-59....do.	120 0	
— of talc, up to fifteen			„ 60-62....do.	140 0	
inches high.....do.	0 75		„ 63-65....do.	160 0	
— of glass, for carriages....do.	2 0		„ 66-68....do.	190 0	
Corks for bottles.....per 1000	2 0	10	„ 69-71....do.	220 0	
Litharge.....quintal	8 0		„ 72-74....do.	250 0	
Books, printed.....lb.	0 62½		„ 75-77....do.	280 0	
Registers, plain or ruled....do.	0 50		„ 78-80....do.	300 0	
Manna.....do.	0 50		up to 16....do.	0 75	
Iron pots, of cast iron, not tinned,			from 17-20....do.	1 50	
with feet.....quintal	4 0		„ 21-24....do.	3 50	
— do. glue pots.....dozen	5 0		„ 25-29....do.	6 50	
— other, of from one to sixteen			„ 30-32....do.	10 0	
pints, tinned.....do.	9 0		„ 33-35....do.	13 0	
— do. enamelled.....do.	12 0	20	„ 36-38....do.	18 0	
Hammers, combos, of iron, for			„ 39-41....do.	23 0	
miners.....quintals	7 0		„ 42-44....do.	28 0	
— martillos, for shoe and boot-			„ 45-47....do.	33 0	
makers, with handles...dozen	2 0		„ 48-50....do.	38 0	
— do. for blacksmiths, with-			„ 51-53....do.	43 0	
out handles.....lb.	0 7		„ 54-56....do.	50 0	
— do. for carpenters, with			„ 57-59....do.	60 0	
handles.....dozen	4 0		„ 60-62....do.	70 0	
— picos, of iron, without			„ 63-65....do.	80 0	
handles.....quintal	8 0	20	„ 66-68....do.	95 0	
Candle and lamp wicks, mariposas			„ 69-71....do.	110 0	
(night light), in boxes contain-			„ 72-74....do.	125 0	
ing from 90 to 100....12 boxes	0 25		„ 75-77....do.	140 0	
— do. from 180 to 200....do.	0 50		„ 78-80....do.	150 0	
— mechas of cotton, not longer			Ointments of every description		20
than four inches, for lamps			lb.	0 50	
gross	0 75		Opium, in paste.....do.	5 0	
— pabilos (spun) of cotton			Gold, in paste and dust....marc	125 0	
quintal	20 0		— in leaves, hojuelas, for gild-		
Bits for horses, of iron, common			ing, imitation.....lb.	2 25	
dozen	9 0		— do. real.....oz.	2 75	
— do. superior.....do.	18 0		— books containing from 20 to		
Coffee and spice (hand) mills, of			25 leaves each, and up to three		
wood.....do.	8 0		inches square, imitation..gross	2 0	
— do. of iron.....do.	12 0	20	— do. real.....book	0 40	
— with fly wheel.....do.	12 0		— briscado, for gilding, real.oz.	2 75	
Mustard, in grains.....lb.	0 10		— do. imitation.....lb.	2 25	
— in flour.....do.	0 50		— cauntillo, real.....oz.	2 75	
— prepared in pots, of from			— do. imitation.....lb.	2 25	
12 to 14 ounces' weight..12 pots	1 50		— coined.....		
— do. in pots of from 18 to			— manufactured in pieces, fit		
22 lbs. weight.....do.	2 0		for use.....marc	150 0	
Mats and matting, esteras, of			— do. old, not fit for use....do.	100 0	
China, for windows and doors,		20	Spangles, of silver, imitation..lb.	2 25	
&c.....dozen	9 0		— do. real, gilt or not.....oz.	2 75	
— do. floor matting, from 36			Wafers.....lb.	1 25	
to 55 inches broad.....yard	0 18		Trousers, of cashmere.....each	4 0	
			— of cotton, flax, or hemp.do.	2 0	

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Trousers, of cloth, common and rough for sailors.....each	1 50	35	Frying-pans, of iron, up to 12 inches diameter, tinned.dozen	4 0	
— do. other kinds (see Cashmere.)			— do. not tinned.....do.	2 50	
Paper, white, for printing (450 sheets in a ream), the greatest length not exceeding 30 inches ream	2 0		Weights of copper or bronze of any shape.....lb.	0 80	
— square letter paper.....do.	1 75		— of cast-iron.....do.	0 10	
— music paper ruled.....do.	5 0		Powder-flasksdozen	9 0	
— other kinds of ordinary dimensions, 500 sheets in a ream— florete (a very thin paper).....do.	2 25		Tar, barniz, common, for ships, &c.....gallon	0 50	
— medio-florete, other kind.do.	1 25		— pez, Greek, or red..quintal	3 0	
— blotting-paper (450 sheets in a ream).....do.	3 0		Pottery, porcelain cups, mates dozen	4 50	
— cartridge-paper.....quintal	8 0		— do. tazas, tea or coffee cups and saucers, gilt or painted.do.	3 50	
— paper-hangings, in rolls (piezas) from 10 to 12 vares long and not more than 22 inches broad.....roll	0 62½	20	— do. not gilt or painted..do.	2 25	20
— sand-paper, not exceeding 18 inchesream	4 0		— common white and coloured, in baskets, &c., whole, from 21 to 48 cubic feetbasket	36 0	
— for shades, window-blinds, &c.....do.	2 50		— do. in half baskets, from 13 to 20 cubic feet...half basket	24 0	
— copying-paper (used with a copying-machine).....do.	3 0		— do. in quarter baskets, up to 12 cubic feet..quarter basket	14 0	
— for making cigarettes, best (in reams of 500 sheets)....do.	3 0		Pots and pails (bacinicas), of British metal of every shape dozen	10 0	
— do. in books the length of a cigar.....12 doz.	0 75		— lecheras (milk-pails) of British metaldo.	8 0	
Parasols and umbrellas, of cotton, from 25 to 32 inches..each	0 87½		Gunpowder, for sporting, fine grainedlb.	0 40	
— of silk (vide silk).			— for large and small ordnance do.	0 15	duty free.
Parchment for drum-heads, of the usual size.....12 sheets	3 0	30	Blocks, (motones) inch in length	0 12½	2
Perfumery, in other vessels than of crystal or fine porcelain 12 pots	1 50		Ploughs, with shares.....each	3 0	
Combs:			Planes of every description, up to 24 inches long.....dozen	10 0	20
— horn.....doz.	1 0	20	Girths of hemp, cotton, and wool 12 pair	9 0	30
— do. do. of tortoiseshell...do.	12 0		— not made up of cotton and wool, of one colour.....yard	0 16	
— do. other kinds, of boxwood do.	0 30	30	Soap, common kind, in cakes or bars, for washing linen.quintal	7 0	
— do. other wood.....do.	0 25		Saws, serruchos, with handles, from 9 to 26 inches long..dozen	9 0	
— do. of ivory, from 2 to 4 inches long.....do.	1 25		— do. small and pointed, for cutting key-holes, 10 or 12 inches long.....do.	3 0	20
— peinetas (side combs) per pair, of horngross	5 0	20	— do. not broader than one inch.....do.	4 0	
— do. of tortoiseshell.....doz.	6 0	15	— sierras, from 60 to 76 inches longeach	4 0	
— do. of iron.....gross	3 50		— blades of, from 20 to 36 inches long and up to 1 inch in width.....dozen	4 0	
Spades, of iron, with handles doz.	7 0		Saddlery:—		
— do. without handles.....do.	3 50		— harness for carriage-horses per set	30 0	
Hydrometers of glass.....do.	2 50	20	— leathern halters.....dozen	5 0	
Paintbrushes (brochas), for house-painters, &c.....do.	1 50		— saddles, trimmed or not, side-saddles.....each	30 0	
— shaving-brushes.....do.	1 0		— do. saddles for men (without any metal).....do.	20 0	
— pencils and brushes for portrait, &c., painters.....do.	0 75		Bellows, kitchen, common, being in breadth up to 12 inches dozen	6 0	30
Lead, pigquintal	4 50	10	— do. above 12 and up to 17 inches.....do.	10 0	
— sheetdo.	6 0		— for forges, from 17 to 30 inches broad.....inch	0 75	
— manufactured in pieces, of every description, weighing more than 10 lbs.....do.	6 50		— do. above 30 and up to 50 inches broad.....do.	1 0	
— do. old, not fit for use....do.	4 50		Sieves, arneros, of wire, from 12 to 20 inches diameter, of iron dozen	7 50	
Pens, steel, without penholder gross	0 75		— do. of brass.....do.	12 0	20
— quills made into pens..1000	4 0		— cedazos, of horsehair, from 8 to 16 inches diameter, and of other tissuesdo.	3 50	30
— do. not do.....do.	3 0		Augers, with iron, of from one-half two inches diameter...do.	6 0	
— penholders of wood, metal, or bonegross	1 50	20	Centrebits, of from one to three dozen bits.....each	3 0	20
Ornamental feathers, ostrich, naturallb.	0 45		Drills, from two to six inches long.....dozen	0 40	
— coloured, ready made up for bonnets, longer than ten inches dozen	5 0				
— do. in parcels of three, not longer than eight inches 12 parcels	3 0				

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Tea-kettles and tea-pots of copper, of red copper or bronze, holding from two to six pints dozen	16 0	20	Cotton tissues:—(continued)		
— of brass, with warmer, standing not higher than eight inches.....each	3 50		— do. from 81 to 90 threads, from 22 to 25 inches.....each	3 50	
— of iron, holding from two to ten pints, cast, also tinned.doz.	10 0		— do. above 90 threads, from 22 to 25 inches.....do.	4 0	
— do. of enamelled iron...do.	12 0		— lawn, white or coloured, patterned from 33 to 42 inches broad.....yard	0 15	
— of British metal.....do.	16 0		— listados, square and striped pattern, from 26 to 30 inches in width.....do.	0 7	
Tea, pays a specified duty of..lb.	..	50	— do. from 31 to 36 do.....do.	0 12	
Cotton tissues:—			— Merinos serged, of one single colour, in pieces of 28 yards, from 23 to 26 inches in width piece	3 0	
— stockings for women, Scotch thread, fine quality, embroidered.....12 pairs	8 0	20	— Pocket and other handkerchiefs, neckerchiefs for men, from 32 to 36 inches long doz.	2 0	
— do. plain.....do.	8 0		— pocket handkerchiefs printed red, commonly called of Turkey, from 30 to 32 inches....do.	1 62½	
— do. open work.....do.	8 0		— do. common, from 24 to 26 inches.....do.	0 56½	
— do. other kind, white, plain, common.....do.	1 6½		— do., above 26 to 28 in....do.	0 62	
— do. courans.....do.	1 81½		— do., above 28 to 32 in....do.	1 0	
— do. half-fine and of fine quality.....do.	2 81½	20	— do., above 32 to 36 in....do.	1 25	
— do. open work, embroidered do.	3 0		— other kind, of Madras or paliacate, real or imitation, from 28 to 34 inches long....do.	1 12½	
— do. other kind.....do.	2 25		— muslins and muslin gauze, gasas, white, plain, from 30 to 40 inches in width.....do.	0 12	
— do. coloured of every quality do.	1 75		— do., patterned, from 28 to 40 in.....do.	0 12	
— do. for men, white, plain, common.....do.	2 0		— do., muselinas, painted or printed, from 26 to 30 in....do.	0 12½	
— do. courans.....do.	2 50	20	— do., from 31 to 36 in....do.	0 15	
— do. fine quality.....do.	4 0		— nankin, English, in pieces, up to 11 vares long and 18 in. wide.....piece	0 63	
— do. open work at sides, common.....do.	2 0		— do., of China, blue or caugas, in pieces, up to 11 vares long, and 18 in. wide.....do.	0 75	
— do. courans.....do.	3 0		— do., yellow, in pieces, from 7 to 8 vares long.....do.	0 50	
— do. fine quality.....do.	4 0		— nankinettes or florentines, single, from 20 to 23 in. wide yard	0 7	
— do. coloured of every quality do.	3 0	20	— do., 24 to 27 in. wide....do.	0 9	
— socks for children.....do.	0 87½		— piel (crossed), not double, satined, from 24 to 27 inches wide, white.....do.	0 16	
— do. for men.....do.	1 25		— do., coloured.....do.	0 18½	
— canvass, for embroidering upon, from 20 to 55 inches in width.....vare	0 62½		— do., printed.....do.	0 14	
— gingham, striped or square pattern, from 30 to 36 inches in width.....yard	0 12		— felt for hats, from 25 to 30 in. wide.....do.	0 55	
— cholet, from 24 to 28 inches broad, plain.....do.	0 10	20	— quilted stuff, common or Marseilles, from 22 to 25 in. wide.....do.	0 18	
— coco (gummed calico), coloured, for linings, from 24 to 30 inches broad.....do.	0 10		— do., other kind, from 24 to 27 in. wide white.....do.	0 30	
— tickings (cotines), single, from 24 to 27 inches broad..do.	0 9		— do., coloured, thread dyed, and other kind.....do.	0 75	
— do. double, from 25 to 30 inches broad.....do.	0 12½		— ribbons and galoons, of hiladillo, in pieces of from 10 to 12 vares, white and black, up to 1 in. wide.....12 pieces	0 25	
— Russian drills, pure, from 24 to 27 inches in width, single mixed of one colour.....do.	0 12½		— do., of more than of 1 to 2 in. wide.....do.	0 60	
— do. double, of more than one colour.....do.	0 22	20	— do., of ribetillo. serged, in pieces of 32 vares.....piece	0 12	
— flannel, from 24 to 28 inches do.	0 11		— do., other kind, coloured, plain, or patterned, up to 1 in. wide.....100 yards	0 50	
— fort-en-diable (gummed), from 24 to 28 inches broad, plain, of one colour only...do.	0 12½		— do., of more than 1 to 2 in. wide.....do.	1 50	
— do. quilted, or other kind do.	0 16		— do., of imitation gold and silver, from 1 to 2 inches wide, vare	0 9	
— gergon, from 30 to 36 inches in width.....do.	0 14		— shawls and neckerchiefs, pannuelos, of gauze or cambric, from 31 to 36 in.....doz.	1 25	
— Indianas (quimones), in pieces of 28 yards, red, commonly called of Turkey, from 23 to 26 inches in width...each	5 0				
— do. from 27 to 32 do.....do.	7 50				
— do. other kind, containing in a square of half an inch, both warp and woof, not more than 60 threads, from 22 to 24 inches.....do.	2 0				
— do. from 61 to 70 threads, from 22 to 24 inches.....do.	2 50				
— do. from 71 to 80 threads, from 22 to 24 inches.....do.	3 0				

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Cotton tissues:—(continued)			Cotton tissues:—(continued)		
— shawls and neckerchiefs, pannuelos, of tulle, embroidered, black and white, from 38 to 46 in. wideeach	2 50	15	— known under the name of generos, otherwise than serged, white, plain, having in the warp, per square of $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch, more than 36 up to 44 threads in width, up to 36 in. do.	0 11	20
— do., from 54 to 64 in. wide do.	4 0		— " 40 "do.	0 12	
— do., coloured, red, commonly called "of Turkey," with fringe, from 32 to 36 in. broaddoz.	3 50	20	— do., above 44 threads in width, from 24 to 28 in.do.	0 12	
— do., from 54 to 64 in. broad do.	9 0		— do., up to 32 in.do.	0 14	
— do., without fringe.....do.	2 0		— " 36 "do.	0 16	
— do., other kind, plain or serged, with fringe, from 30 to 36 in. broad.....do.	2 50		— " 40 "do.	0 18	
— do., from 54 to 64 in. broad do.	4 50		— " 46 "do.	0 20	
— do., without fringe, from 30 to 36 in. broad.....do.	1 25		— do., dyed, or striped of one colour.....do.	0 4	
— do., from 54 to 64 in. broad do.	3 0		Tissues of horse hair, from 20 to 28 inches broad, black, plain	1 0	
— do., rebozos or chales, common, with square or striped pattern.....do.	5 0		— do., patterned, and other colours.....do.	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— tulle, encajes, patterned, common, from 1 to 4 in. ..yard do.	0 4	15	Tissues of wool (alepine), from 18 to 24 in. broaddo.	0 40	10
— fine quality, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 in. do.	0 2		— do., above 24 to 34 in. broad do.	0 60	
— do., above 1 to 5 in.do.	0 12 $\frac{1}{2}$		— do., above 34 to 46 in. broad do.	0 80	
— do., plain, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 in.do.	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$		— anacoste, or anascoste, from 30 to 36 in. broad, pure, and mixed with cotton.....yard	0 37 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— English tulle, plain, from 26 to 30 in.do.	0 30		— astracan (a kind of English plush), of one colour, from 25 to 27 in. broad.....do.	0 40	
— velvet (pannas), plain, fine quality, for gowns, of one or more colours, painted or stamped, from 17 to 24 in. do.	0 25		— stockings for men and women, mixed and unmixed...doz.	4 50	
— do., other kind, of one colour from 13 to 16 in.do.	0 18		— socks, for childrendo.	1 0	
— do., other kind, of one colour or painted, from 17 to 26 in. broaddo.	0 25		— do., for mendo.	2 0	
— known under the general name of "generos," pure for ponchos (a kind of cloak), from 25 to 30 in. broad.....do.	0 50	30	— baize of pellen, from 60 to 70 in. broad, with long nap yard	1 25	
— do., above 30 up to 60 in. do.	1 0		— do., with short nap.....do.	1 0	
— do., other kind, serged, white, from 25 to 28 in.do.	0 10		— do., other kind, of 100 threads, and both sides alike, from 60 to 72 in. broad.....do.	0 82	
— do., up to 30 in.do.	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$		— do., other kind, bayetilla, from 56 to 70 in.do.	0 65	
— " 32 "do.	0 11		— do., fapiela, the same		
— " 34 "do.	0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$		— bouracan (plaid shawls) from 24 to 29 in. broad, Scotch do.	0 30	
— " 36 "do.	0 12		— do., other kind, double, of one colour.....do.	0 50	20
— do., dyed, or with stripes of one colour.....do.	0 4		— do., singledo.	0 25	
— do., otherwise than serged, raw, plain, known by the name of cujos, being in breadth from 23 to 29 inchesdo.	0 6		— cashmere, from 26 to 30 in. broad, unmixed.....do.	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— do., above 26 to 26 in. ..do.	0 7		— do., mixed with cotton ..do.	0 75	
— " 29 " 32 " ..do.	0 8		— cassinette, pure, from 24 to 27 in. broad, and mixed with cottondo.	0 70	
— " 32 " 36 " ..do.	0 9		— chali, from 25 to 33 in. plain or patterned.....vare	0 50	
— " 36 " 38 " ..do.	0 10		— damasks, pure and mixed with cotton, from 25 to 30 in. broad.....yard	0 35	
— " 38 " 41 " ..do.	0 11		— do., from 50 to 60 in. broad, do.	0 70	
— " 41 " 44 " ..do.	0 12		— cloth for billiard tables..do.	4 0	
— do., white, plain, having in the warp, per square of half an inch not more than 36 threads in width, up to 23 in. do.	0 4	20	— duraderas (lasting), of one colour, from 24 to 27 in. broad, satined and sergeddo.	0 45	
— do., above 23 to 26 in. ..do.	0 6		— barèges, lanilla, for flags, from 12 to 15 inches broad....	0 12	
— " 26 " 30 " ..do.	0 7		— do., other kind, with pattern from 21 to 25 in. broad do.	0 30	
— " 30 " 33 " ..do.	0 8		— other kind, plain or serged. for coat-linings, pure, from 16 to 20 inches broaddo.	0 15	
— " 33 " 36 " ..do.	0 9		— do. from 21 to 25 inches broad.....do.	0 25	
— " 36 " 38 " ..do.	0 10		— do. mixed with cotton, as "pure".....do.		
— " 38 " 41 " ..do.	0 11				
— do., more than 36 up to 44 threads in width, from 24 to 27 in.do.	0 7				
— do., up to 30 in.do.	0 8				
— do., up to 33 in.do.	0 10				

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Tissues of wool—(continued).			Tissues of wool—(continued).		
— flannel, franela, from 24 to 28 inches, unmixed.....yard.	0 26	20	— general denomination of "generos" for ponchos, pure, from 25 to 30 inches.....do.	0 62½	30
— do. mixed with cotton, common.....do.	0 18		— do. from 31 to 60 inches..do.	1 25	
— do. best quality.....do.	0 25		— do. mixed with cotton (see "pure.")		
— gambrun, of wool and cotton (a kind of stuff resembling crape), not exceeding 28 inches do.	0 30		— other kind, of pure wool crossed, both sides alike, glossy, up to 28 inches broad do.	0 62½	20
— merino cloth, double, unmixed, for summer coats, from 45 to 55 inches broad.....vare	1 50	20	Tissues of hemp and flax:		
— do. for women, serged on both sides, from 42 to 50 inches broad.....do.	0 87½		— cambric, batista, from 27 to 36 inches breadth.....vare	1 0	15
— do. on one side, from 40 to 45 inches broad.....do.	0 50		— Brabant, from 33 to 40 inches broad.....do.	0 45	20
— molleton, or espagnoletti (fine rateen), from 40 to 50 inches broad.....yard	0 88		— britannies, in pieces of from 7 to 8 vares long pure and mixed with cotton, breadth from 24 to 26 inches, from 70 to 80 threads in a square of ½ inch of both warp and woof piece	2 0	
— muslin, from 23 to 26 inches broad, unmixed, plain and open work.....do.	0 30	20	— do. breadth from 30 to 36 inches, having in the square ½ inch of both warp and woof, from 60 to 70 threads.....do.	2 25	
— do. mixed with cotton, plain do.	0 12½		— " 71—80 "do.	2 50	
— do. open work.....do.	0 18½		— " 81—90 "do.	3 0	
— plush for collars of cloaks, from 12 to 16 inches broad..do.	0 60	30	— " 91—100 "do.	3 50	
— shawls and kerchiefs, of cashmere, common, from 40 to 50 inches long.....doz.	13 0		— " 101—110 "do.	4 0	20
— do. from 54 to 64 inches long do.	18 0		— canvass for embroidering upon, from 20 to 55 inches broad.....vare	0 62½	
— do. good and semi-fine quality, from 40 to 50 inches long do.	20 0		— caserillos (cloths for domestic purposes), from 21 to 24 inches in pieces of 13 yards.....yard	0 11	
— do. from 54 to 64 inches long do.	32 0	20	— cholet, mixed with cotton, from 24 to 28 inches.....do.	0 10	20
— do. of lanilla, ordinary, plain, or serged, pure, from 40 to 50 inches long.....do.	9 0		— ticking, brin (common ticking) plain raw, from 24 to 30 inches broad.....do.	0 11	
— do. from 54 to 64 inches long.....do.	16 0		— do. from 36 to 42 inches..do.	0 15	
— do. mixed with cotton, same as "pure."			— do. plain white, from 24 to 30 inches.....do.	0 13	
— do. of merino, printed, from 54 to 64 inches long, common, of merino-cashmere.....each	3 25	30	— do. from 36 to 42 inches..do.	0 18½	20
— do. other kind.....do.	4 0		— do. cotines (common ticking for mattresses) from 25 to 30 inches broad.....do.	0 18	
— alforubras, carpets and mockatoes called "tripe," tufted, from 26 to 30 inches long.....each	2 75		— do. drills (Russian), from 24 to 28 inches broad, pure, white, and coloured.....do.	0 25	
— do. " 31—36 "do.	3 75		— do., mixed with cotton do.	0 25	20
— do. " 37—42 "do.	6 0	20	— do. pure and mixed with cotton, from 24 to 30 inches in breadth, having in the square ½ inch in the warp less than 18 threads.....do.	0 10	
— do. curled, 26—30 "do.	1 75		— do. from 25 to 30 inches in breadth, having in the square ½ inch in the warp from 18 to 30 threads.....do.	0 20	
— do. " 31—36 "do.	2 75		— damask linen, from 18 to 20 in. broad.....yard	0 20	
— do. " 37—42 "do.	4 0	20	— do., from 21 to 25 in. broad, do.	0 30	20
— mockatoes, Kidderminster and ingrained (gergon) from 30 to 36 inches, imperial..yard	0 87½		— " 26 " 30 " do.	0 40	
— do. of two threads.....do.	0 70		— " 31 " 35 " do.	0 50	
— tripe pure (Brussels mockatoes) from 26 to 28 inches, tufted.....do.	1 50		— " 36 " 40 " do.	0 60	20
— do. curled.....do.	1 25	20	— " 41 " 45 " do.	0 70	
— carpetas (table-cloths) of cloth, plain or of any pattern, from 50 to 60 inches broad.yard	2 25		— " 46 " 50 " do.	0 80	
— tartan of pure wool, with long nap for lining of winter clothing, from 48 to 56 inches broad.....do.	1 0		— " 51 " 55 " do.	0 85	
— knitting, plain or with borders, up to 16 inches broad.do.	0 75	20	— " 56 " 60 " do.	0 90	20
— tripe, for miners' caps, plush fashion, of one colour, from 16 to 20 inchesdo.	0 50		— " 61 " 65 " do.	0 95	
— do. for trousers, mixed with cotton, plain, or of cordoncillo, from 25 to 30 inches.....do.	1 0		— " 66 " 70 " do.	1 0	
— other kind, known by the			— " 71 " 75 " do.	1 12½	
			— estopille, from 25 to 30 in. in pieces of from 7 to 8 vares piece	3 0	20
			— gergon, of hemp, from 30 to 36 in. broad.....yard	0 15	

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Tissues of hemp and flax :— (continued).			Waistcoats, of cloth embroidered or trimmed, of wool and of silk		
— holland, unmixed, from 32 to 36 in. broad, and having in the warp per square $\frac{1}{2}$ in. from 40 to 50 threads yard	0 50	20	— of knitted cotton, mixed or unmixed with wool doz.	6 0	35
— do., from 51 to 60 threads..do.	0 63		Screws of wood, for carpenters' benchdo.	18 0	
— do., above 60 threads....do.	0 75		— of iron for bedsteads, com- mon.....gross	6 0	30
— do., mixed with cotton (see unmixed)			— do. with brass heads.....do.	4 0	
— Irish linen, unmixed, from 32 to 36 in. broad, and having in the warp per square $\frac{1}{2}$ in. from 40 to 50 threadsdo.	0 50	20	— do. other kind, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 inches, for carpenters' use..do.	10 0	20
— do., from 51 to 60 threads..do.	0 63		Silk, spun, for sewing.....lb.	0 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— do., above 60 threads....do.	0 75		— not spun, floss, for embroi- deringdo.	5 50	15
— do., mixed with cotton (see unmixed)			Tissues of silk, viz. :	6 0	
— lawn, from 30 to 36 in. broad.....do.	0 50		— stockings and socks.....oz.	1 0	15
— listados (gingham), unmixed and mixed with cotton, from 26 to 30 in. broad.....do.	0 10	15	— brocades, knitted by ma- chine, of gold or silver, from 20 to 25 inches broad, pure, real.....vare	8 0	
— do., 31 to 36 in. broad ...do.	0 12 $\frac{1}{2}$		— do. imitationdo.	4 0	20
— pocket-handkerchiefs of cambric, embroidered, from 24 to 32 in. broaddoz.	0 0		— do. mixed with cotton...do.	3 0	
— do., plain or with border, 26 to 32 in. broad.....do.	2 0		— do. of silk, pure.....do.	2 50	15
— platillas, in pieces of 35 yards, having in warp and woof, per square $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, not more than 70 threads, pure, and mixed with cotton....piece	9 0		— do. mixed with cotton...do.	2 50	
— of Rouen, having in the warp and woof, per square $\frac{1}{2}$ in., not more than 70 threads, unmixed, not exceeding 42 in. broad, and mixed with cotton vare	7 0	20	— canvass, for embroidering, up to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches.....do.	0 20	15
— damask napkins, from 36 to 44 in. long.....doz.	0 50		— neckcloths, corbates, for men, not exceeding 70 inches long, and from 8 to 13 inches broad, unmixed.....doz.	16 0	
— known by the general name of cloth, oiled, Eucradas, for carpets, for household pur- poses, double, from 22 to 24 in. broad.....vare	6 0		— do. mixed with cotton...do.	12 0	20
— do., from 25 to 30 in. broad	0 42		— pannelos, black, of China, 32 inches for sailors, from 28 to common, long.....each	0 37 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— do., 31, 36 do.	0 58		— crape, crespón, from 28 to 32 inches in breadth.....vare	0 40	15
— do., 37, 41 do.	0 66	30	— do. espumilla, of China, from 15 to 18 inches broad.....yard	0 50	
— do., 42, 47 do.	0 74		— damask, from 26 to 30 inches broadvare	1 37 $\frac{1}{2}$	15
— do., 48, 53 do.	0 82		— Scotch.....oz.	0 62 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— do., 54, 59 do.	0 90		— gauze, plain and knitted by machine.....do.	1 50	15
— do., 60, 65 do.	0 98		— gros de Naples, plain and with pattern.....do.	0 62 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— do., 66, 71 do.	1 6	20	— lamas (a kind of knitted stuff), of gold and silver, from 20 to 25 inches broad, real.vare	4 0	15
— do., for table, single, from 30 to 36 in. broaddo.	0 25		— do. imitation.....do.	3 0	
— do., Hull, from 30 to 36 in. broad.....yard	0 50		— levantine, sargas or levan- tinas, and sayasaya.....oz.	0 62	15
— do., sail cloth (lona), Nos. 1 to 7, from 22 to 24 in. broad, white.....do.	0 25		— lawn, from 30 to 36 inches broad.....vare	0 80	
— do., brown.....do.	0 20		— pocket-handkerchiefs. ban- danas, or chapas, of India, in pieces of 7 handkerchiefs, from 24 to 27 inches.....piece	3 0	15
— do., other kind, generos (sacking) common, from 22 to 28 in. broad.....do.	0 6	20	27—30.....do.	3 50	
— do., from 29 to 35 in. broad, do.	0 8		30—33.....do.	4 0	15
— do., from 36 to 42 in broad, do.	0 10		33—36.....do.	4 50	
Glass, cristaleria (table glass), common, wine glasses and tumblers.....doz.	0 40		— do. fulares of every descrip- tion.....oz.	0 60	15
— do., every other kind of drinking glasses.....do.	0 70		— Pekin.....do.	0 62 $\frac{1}{2}$	
— chimneys for lamps.....do.	0 50	20	— plush, unmixed, from 20 to 24 inches broad.....vare	0 75	15
— vidrios, (watch glasses).do.	0 75		— do. above 24 to 28 inches.do.	1 25	
— do., window and plate glass 100 square feet	4 75		— ribbons, de listoneria, of ri- betillo, in pieces of 32 vares piece	0 37 $\frac{1}{2}$	15
Glass manufactures, viz. :—			— do. other kind, pure, of satin, plain, in pieces of 32 vares.....do.	0 75	
— abalorios, (large beads pierced) rockworklb.	0 20		— do. other kind, in pieces from 38 to 40 vares, assorted Nos. 15, 20, and 40.....do.	0 80	20
— chaguiras, do., small....do.	0 20		— do. not assorted, No. 15..do.	0 55	
— cuentas, glass beadsdo.	0 20		No. 20.....do.	0 75	20
			No. 40do.	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$	
			— do. mixed with cotton, from 1 to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad.....vare	0 4	20
			— do. above 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches broaddo.	0 6	
			— do. other kind, chambergas,		

(continued.)

IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuotion.	Ad Valorem Duty.	IMPORT DUTIES.	Valuation.	Ad Valorem Duty.
	pia. cts.	per cent.		pia. cts.	per cent.
Tissues of silk—(continued).			Tissues of silk—(continued).		
being less than $\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad, in pieces from 56 to 64 vares			— shawls and kerchiefs of Chinese crape, of several colours, printed, from 40 to 45 inches		
piece	0 65	15	each	3 0	15
— ribbons of gauze, crape, tulle, and other transparent stuffs, plain or not, made by machine, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad.....vare	0 8		46—54.....do.	3 50	
— do. of satin of every quality, plain or not, made by machine, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad...do.	0 15		55—64.....do.	4 0	
— do. of velvet, unmixed, plain, Nos. 30 to 100, in pieces of 32 vares.....piece	1 50		— do. of tissues of a clear and transparent quality, of another kind than of Chinese crape, plain, open worked, knitted or embroidered by machine, printed, with or without fringe	1 75	
— do. with pattern, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad.....vare	0 8		oz.		
— do. above $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad.....do.	0 12	20	— do. other kind, of every dimension, plain or not, knitted or embroidered by machine, and not by hand, with or without fringe, of one colour and shot silk.....do.	0 80 $\frac{1}{2}$	15
— satin, lamilla (imitation satin).....do.	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$		— taffeta.....do.	0 62	
— do. raso, other kind, and satinette.....oz.	0 62 $\frac{1}{2}$		— velvet, pure, plain or not.do	1 0	
— shawls and kerchiefs of Chinese crape, of one colour, plain or damasked, from 32 to 36 inches.....each	1 25		— stuffs known by the general name of "generos," for waistcoats from 20 to 25 inches broad, common, with a small silk ornament, and the remainder of pure cotton.....vare	0 37 $\frac{1}{2}$	
40—45.....do.	2 50		— do. other kind, pure....do.	1 25	
46—54.....do.	2 75	15	— do. mixed, of cotton and wool, called cashmere.....do.	1 25	20
55—64.....do.	3 0		— do. of cotton only.....do.	0 75	
— do. of several colours, printed, from 32 to 36 inches					
do.	1 50				

CHAPTER XIV.

STATISTICS OF BUENOS AYRES.

THE civil war under Rosas has annihilated the means of compiling any late return upon which reliance can be placed, regarding the trade and statistics of Buenos Ayres.

Under Spain the trade of Buenos Ayres consisted in exporting the precious metals, and salt beef, tallow, fine furs, sea wolf-skins, wool, sheep-skins, flour, oil, copper, hides, &c. To the interior provinces of Peru, were exported Paraguay tea, swan skins, negro slaves, thread, &c., in exchange for sugar, cacao, cinnamon, rice, indigo, cotton, oil, pimento, wax, baize, woollen goods, quicksilver, &c.

From Europe, La Plata received linens, woollens, silks, cottons, hats, iron, &c., and the imports were estimated, in average years, at 758,400*l.* per annum, whilst the exports amounted, in agricultural produce, to the value of 434,000*l.*, and in gold and silver to 1,183,400*l.* The whole estimated total value of exports amounted to 1,617,400*l.* sterling. The viceroyalty formerly remitted 700,000 piastres, at 4*s.* 4*d.* each, to the royal coffers of Spain.

In 1828, sixty-four British ships of 12,746 tons entered the port of Buenos Ayres.

NUMBER and Tonnage of Vessels belonging to each Country, with the Value of their Cargoes, which arrived at, and departed from, the Port of Buenos Ayres, in the Year 1836.

C O U N T R I E S.	A R R I V E D.			D E P A R T E D.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Value of Cargoes.	Ships.	Tons.	Value of Cargoes.
	number.	number.	current dollars.	number.	number.	current dollars.
British.....	49	9,759	23,107,234	47	9,249	9,767,211
Buenos Ayrean	11	1,609	758,500	21	2,798	681,300
French.....	19	3,465	3,596,400	21	4,128	2,891,000
United States	37	8,063	2,395,400	40	8,810	7,935,200
Brazilian.....	39	5,304	4,357,900	39	5,353	889,600
Sardinian.....	21	1,629	1,784,000	20	4,354	3,641,400
Bremen.....	4	680	128,700	3	510	847,300
Swedish.....	6	1,553	246,300	3	654	454,100
Hamburg.....	5	794	512,700	6	1,244	342,900
Danish.....	9	1,291	986,600	10	1,633	820,400
Dutch.....	2	358	236,300	3	458	440,100
Belgian.....	2	389	223,900	2	389	120,400
Spanish.....	6	862	685,600	6	1,002	816,800
Tuscan.....	1	193	112,800	1	193	232,400
Monte Videan.....	2	168	281,800	2	168	87,500
Total.....	213	36,117	39,422,134	224	40,943	29,967,611

REMARKS.—The average exchange of the year at which the Returns of Trade are calculated, is 7*d.* per current dollar of Buenos Ayres. Although the British vessels which have arrived in this port during the year have decreased in number and tonnage, yet the value of the goods imported in them has not much diminished; say about 10,000*l.* sterling.

The produce of this country, exported in the course of the year, has augmented in value, about 145,000*l.* sterling more than last year, of which increase the British merchants have partaken in fair proportion, and have sent home large returns for our manufactured goods.

The quantity and quality of the wool now furnished from this province, is gradually on the advance, and must prove highly advantageous in our commercial relations with England. The foreign trade with Buenos Ayres continues much the same with respect to imports, but the exports of produce have been much increased.

NUMBER of British Vessels, with the Nature and Value of their Cargoes, which arrived at, and departed from the Port of Buenos Ayres, in the Year 1836.

P O R T S.	A R R I V E D.			D E P A R T E D.		
	Ships.	Nature of Cargoes.	Value of Cargoes.	Ships.	Nature of Cargoes.	Value of Cargoes.
	number.		£	number.		£
Liverpool.....	36	General cargoes	640,550	20	{ Ox hides, horns, and hoofs, tallow, nutria skins, wool, &c. &c..... }	185,649
London	2	Ditto.....	9,451	5	{ Ox hides and horns, horse hides and hair, nutria skins, wool, &c. &c..... }	66,847
Isle of Mayo.....	2	Salt.....	2,893			
Cette	1	Wine and salt.....	3,042			
Lisbon	1	Salt.....	577			
Malaga.....	2	Wine, &c.....	10,076			
Quebec.....	1	Lumber.....	1,244	1	{ Tallow, sheep skins, } { &c..... }	583
Sicily.....	2	Wine and salt.....	6,129	1	Mules, horses, &c.....	475
Rio de Janeiro.....	2	Salt.....		1	Mules.....	352
Isle of France.....				1	Ox hides.....	8,759
Antwerp.....				1	Ox hides, horns, &c.....	5,831
Plymouth.....				1	Mules.....	472
Barbadoes.....				2		
Valparaiso.....						
Monte Video.....				13	{ Ox hides, horns, and hoofs; wool, tal- low, and five in ballast..... }	15,909
Calcutta.....				1	In ballast.....	
Total.....	49		673,962	47		284,877

TRADE OF BUENOS AYRES DURING THE YEARS 1842 AND 1843.

General Trade.—The total value of the exports from Buenos Ayres during the year 1843 was valued at 41,423,000 francs (1,659,206*l.* sterling) being an increase of 5,702,000 francs (228,080*l.*) over the exports of the preceding year.

French Trade.—The increase bore upon all articles, and the exports from Buenos Ayres to France have gradually ascended in the scale of importance.

Failure of Commercial Firms.—These favourable results were unfortunately broken off in the early part of the year 1844, by the failure of five of the principal commercial houses at Buenos Ayres; namely, four Argentine and one Brazilian: these failures were followed by the bankruptcy of several other smaller firms.

Amount of Liabilities.—The amount of their liabilities, according to official documents, was 24,000,000 of piastres, paper money, or 307,200*l.* sterling, and as the failures came one upon the other, the panic was very great in a market where the amount of paper money (the only legal currency) in circulation is 50,000,000 piastres, or 665,680*l.*

Causes of Failure.—The causes of these failures may be attributed to the great rage for speculation which seized the merchants during the war with Uruguay, and the blockade of Monte Video. They imagined that this latter port would not be able to export their principal article of trade, namely, skins or hides, they therefore purchased all the hides they could procure; and for this purpose they borrowed capital at the rate of two and two-and-a-half per cent per month, or if by the year, at interest of forty per cent! During this mania news was brought that large cargoes of hides had been shipped by European vessels for the European market, from the Rio Grande, to which the cattle had been driven and killed for provisions, and the skins were sold at a very low price, by Rivera and his men: the consequence of which was a loss, in the European markets, of twenty-five per cent on salted Buenos Ayrean hides, and of six per cent on dried hides. Although the several European houses established at Buenos Ayres were not entirely ruined by this loss, they all suffered more or less. The English firms, speculating in every branch of trade, had the most to bear, but the losses fell more directly upon those in Great Britain: at Buenos Ayres, they being only for the most part the consignees of English manufactures, they only lost the commission on the goods consigned to them.

British Trade.—The British trade being principally with the inhabitants of the town and country of Buenos Ayres, lost not only by this panic but also on the appearance of the Argentine army in Uruguay, which deprived it of its most safe outlet to market.

Trade with the Provinces.—European merchants do not attempt this trade on their own account, in consequence of the risks which it is exposed to.

Mode of Trading.—The products of Europe have to pass through several intermediate provinces before they arrive in those states of the confederation where they are purchased wholesale by native houses, and who confine themselves solely to this branch of business. They then sell them to other and less considerable dealers at a profit, and these again transmit them into the interior. For more than a year the blockade of the Parana has prevented the transit of goods to the richest provinces of Santa Fé, Cordova, and Corrientes, which are estimated, as engrossing two-thirds of the total trade of the interior. The only route open is by the provinces, which transport their produce to Buenos Ayres by land, namely, San Luis, Mendoza la Rioja. These take in return European manufactures, but their consumption being only a third part of the total trade, does not make up for the loss occasioned by the interdicting the navigation of the Upper Parana and of Uruguay.

French Trade.—This trade has suffered less than the English, on account of its being more particularly confined to the town of Buenos Ayres. French merchandise is rarely sent into the interior. Although French goods sell at a good profit; they are sent

interior by others, not by French merchants; who, being prudent, even stopped the speculations in hides in time to save themselves from loss.

Wine Trade.—The French wine trade suffered in the commencement of the year from the blockade of the rivers, but Spain having recently exported wines only in small quantities to the River Plate, wines from France found no competition in the market, and three different cargoes from Cette, Marseilles, and Bordeaux, sold at good profit.

EXPORTS from Buenos Ayres during 1843.

M E R C H A N D I S E.	D E S T I N A T I O N.							
	England.	France.	Antwerp.	Hamburg and Altona.	Bremen.	Spain.	Italy.	United States.
	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.
Hides, dried.....number	25,822	251,829	136,593	54,130	24,456	253,941	89,603	309,122
— salted.....do.	229,317	151,235	18,517	2,690	4,971	3,776	31,118	12,994
— of horses.....do.	21,631	22,861	..	..	..	4,009	1,137	600
Skins, sheep.....doz.	15,935	69,550	..	..	..	4,430	2,300	2,706
— goat.....do.	35,182	1,128	..	..	..	..	..	3,385
— calf.....do.	73	2,905	..	..	..	1,000	1,393	866
— otter.....lbs.*	177,680	8,379	..	..	..	..	..	126,553
— deer.....doz.	159	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,499
Horsehair.....arroba†	35,330	50,523	4,056	204	1,240	..	2,859	9,237
Wool.....do.	76,570	107,207	9,816	..	..	2,380	33,012	237,555
Tallow.....do.	308,995	8,638	380	7,700	3,620	6,000	3,590	..
Ostrich feathers.....lbs.	3,038	11,912	..	..	..	..	..	550
Salt meat.....quintals‡	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,679
Leather shavings.....do.	14	..	5,538	..	..	..	..	3,924
Tallow candles...case of 25 kil.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Horns.....number	416,131	164,664	39,160	8,000	..	7,200	..	302,386
Bones.....do.	1,224,000	17,000	..	..	..	..	..	..

* 1 lb. equal to 0 kilg. 46.

† 1 arroba equal to 11 kilg. 50.

‡ 1 quintal equal to 46 kilg.

EXPORTS—continued.

M E R C H A N D I S E.	D E S T I N A T I O N.			Total Quantities.	V A L U E.		Résumé of 1842.
	Brazils and Valparaiso	Havanna.	Other Countries.		In Piastres.	In francs at the rate of 32 cents per piastre.	
	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	francs.
Hides, dried.....number	22,166	124	292,206	1,459,992	65,100,000	21,024,000	16,246,000
— salted.....do.	..	..	63,673	518,381	26,955,000	8,626,000	7,098,000
— of horses.....do.	..	..	..	50,238	1,105,000	354,000	366,000
Skins, sheep.....doz.	..	..	..	94,921	2,848,000	911,000	1,214,000
— goat.....do.	..	..	..	39,695	1,191,000	381,000	17,000
— calf.....do.	..	..	..	6,236	187,000	60,000	45,000
— otter.....lbs.*	..	..	..	312,612	1,094,000	350,000	53,000
— deer.....doz.	..	..	..	143,000kil.	..	..	..
Horsehair.....arroba†	..	..	6,039	4,658	56,000	18,000	6,000
Wool.....do.	..	150	2,100	109,488	4,380,000	1,402,000	1,359,000
Tallow.....do.	16,406	..	33,687	or 1,259,000 "	..	..	..
Ostrich feathers.....lbs.	..	..	..	468,790	10,313,000	3,300,000	4,022,000
Salt meat.....quintals‡	59,705	100,800	..	" 5,391,000 "	9,755,000	3,122,000	3,446,000
Leather shavings.....do.	80	..	..	390,216	..	..	..
Tallow candles...case of 25 kil.	2,394	..	..	" 4,487,000 "	233,000	75,000	132,000
Horns.....number	..	2,000	97,984	15,500	5,676,000	1,816,000	1,312,000
Bones.....do.	21,500	..	..	7,130 "	..	..	..
				" 162,184 "	..	..	..
				" 7,460,000 "	239,000	76,000	138,000
				" 440,000 "	96,000	31,000	136,000
				" 59,850 "	312,006	100,000	197,000
				1,035,325	241,000	77,000	232,000
				1,462,500	..	..	..
Total.....					130,381,000	41,723,000	36,021,000
Total sterling.....						1,649,200	1,421,120

* 1 lb. equal to 0 kilg. 46.

† 1 arroba equal to 11 kilg. 50.

‡ 1 quintal equal to 46 kilg.

State of Trade in May, 1844.—Goods of Parisian Manufacture in the Market of Buenos Ayres.—This branch of the French trade (*objets de l'industrie Parisienne*), is of some importance. In 1836, an average year, the articles of Parisian industry imported, were valued at 421,206 francs, or nineteen per cent of the total French imports, composed as follows: mercery or small wares, fans in pretty large parcels, white and straw-coloured kid gloves; those of too dark a colour, soil and fade at sea; bone, ivory, and tortoise-shell combs, brushes of every kind, metal buttons, with bone, ivory, and composition; walking-canes, and small looking-glasses; since 1836, the latter have been in much demand.

Articles of the Toilette for Men.—Since these have latterly been manufactured at Buenos Ayres, those of France are only imported with little profit; but articles of the toilette for women, such as lace, embroideries, dresses, caps, and bonnets, find a good market.

Stationery and Paper-hangings.—Under this head are included fancy gilt, enamelled, &c., paper, also pocket-books and pencil-cases; these articles are only used by the more opulent inhabitants, but not extensively, on account of the political state of the country. Stationery is mostly supplied by England, at least the superior qualities, the thinner and less expensive being French.

Perfumery.—The importations are considerable; but the profits small.

Hats and Bonnets, &c.—Few persons wear, at Buenos Ayres, felt hats; and Germany supplies silk hats. The latter are very cheap, and notwithstanding the duty of about three shillings per hat, the Germans find the trade profitable. French hats have not been able to compete with these.

Wrought Leather and Skins.—Those of Parisian industry rival competition; the consumption of boots and shoes for the army and for private use being very great. The profits are very limited, from the import duties being so very high, and the consumption being almost entirely confined to the town of Buenos Ayres; the arrival of two or three cargoes is sufficient to glut the market, and ruinously to lower the prices.

The interest for money lent at Buenos Ayres is one-half per cent per month; it has been at two, two and a half, and even three per cent per month.

French Wines.—The similarity of the French southern wines to those of Spain (which country formerly alone supplied Buenos Ayres), and their cheapness, will soon put down all competition. The imports have considerably increased, in 1843, particularly from the port of Cette. The French exports of wine during 1842 to Buenos Ayres and Monte Video amounted to 73,179 hectolitres; in 1839, the exports were only 41,419 hectolitres.

Trades, &c., in Buenos Ayres.—In the year 1843 there were in the town of Buenos Ayres, six armourers, twenty-nine inns and hotels, five breweries, fifteen jewellers, forty-five bakers, 459 eating-houses, including public-houses, six tanneries, thirteen chandlers, eighty-six boot and shoemakers, two auctioneers, four manufactories of chocolate, twelve manufactories of cigars, 905 vehicles (carts, waggon, &c.), thirty-nine consignee offices, two drug magazines, nine (livery-stable keepers) horse-dealers, 202 fruiterers and green-grocers, sixty-nine brick-kilns (*fours à briques*), twelve outfitters, nine watch and clock makers, four tennis-courts, fifty-five billiard and coffee-rooms, five job-carriage proprietors, four libraries, sixty-six wholesale warehouses (European articles), 222 retail warehouses (ditto), forty-three magazines for the products of the country (hides, wools, tallow, horns), 273 magazines for divers kinds of stuffs, ten mattress-makers, eleven mercery warehouses and manufactories, sixty-three corn-mills moved by horse and other power, eleven fashionable magazines, twenty-four typographical presses, thirty-two confectioners, twenty-six chemists and druggists, thirteen hardware houses, ten dyers, four carpet-manufactories, three manufactories of tobacco (cut), six manufactories of vermicelli 312 different kinds of industrial workshops kept by labourers or workmen.

French woollen cloth.—During the year 1841, after the raising of the blockade, there was imported from France, *cloths* of all kinds to the amount of 300,000 fr. (12,000*l.*) manufacturing price, a sum which exceeded a little, that of 1842. For the year 1843 the sales are not inferior to those of the previous year, notwithstanding the disadvantages resulting from the prolongation of the war between this country and Monte Video.

There has been sent from France, four qualities of cloth, the prices of which (in France) have varied from seven to twelve francs, from eleven to thirteen, from thirteen to eighteen, and from eighteen to twenty-four francs per metre. The sales were in the following proportions; common cloths, from seven to twelve francs could not meet English competition. Those of greater durability than similar English cloths have neither the lightness (which at La Plata is a quality), nor the lustre of the latter, nor are they so cheap.

The other qualities have sold in the following proportions: one-third of the value at from twelve to thirteen francs per metre, one-sixth, at from thirteen to eighteen francs, three-sixths at from eighteen to twenty-four francs. The qualities quoted at from seven to nine and ten francs have only sold in very small parcels, and generally at a loss.

French Modes.—The only colours that find a sale are, the dark and light blues called English blue, black, and bronze-black; these are the only ones which ought to be imported; the greens, the bronze-greens, and all that approaches to green is proscribed as being the colour adopted by one of the two parties at the time of the first civil war.

As to the quality, the buyers have generally preferred light cloths to those, which, though stronger and more solid, have not that silken and brilliant dressing so much sought after by the Argentines it is principally to the richer class of consumers that the French products have been sent; and the qualities sold at from eighteen to twenty-four francs per metre have equalled half the total consumption. The cloths worn by the common people are of two kinds; a blue cloth, rather deep, light, and brilliant, whose manufactured value varies from *five to six francs per metre*, resembling in strength and wear, the southern French cloths. Cheapness is the great consideration. It is bought chiefly for clothing soldiers and officers, and for cloaks called *ponchos*: the port-men, soldiers, and the officers of the police, and the seamen of the squadron, are entirely clothed with it.

The common blue cloths form half of the English importation; the remainder is of a small, fine kind of cloth, but particularly of a peculiar woollen tissue, a kind of molleton called bayeta, of a breadth of 160 centimetres and of a scarlet colour. It is now worn by both sexes. It is used for the lining of ponchos, for the *cherissas*, a piece of cloth of two metres in length upon the whole breadth of the stuff, which is used by the gauchos and cavalry soldiers. The peasant women make large shawls out of them; the Indians exchange their products for this cloth (the colour of which pleases them much,) when they are not at war with the Confederation.

DIRECT French Trade with Buenos Ayres.

YEARS.	General Trade.*			Special Trade.		
	Importations.	Exportations.	TOTAL.	Importations.	Exportations.	TOTAL.
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
1840.....	335,000	2,701,000	3,036,000	761,000	2,617,000	3,378,000
1841.....	6,164,000	3,443,000	9,607,000	4,569,000	3,106,000	7,675,000
1842.....	12,257,000	4,658,000	16,915,000	8,493,000	3,774,000	12,267,000
1843.....	12,920,000	5,204,000	18,124,000	9,633,000	4,384,000	14,017,000
1844.....	10,055,000	5,616,000	15,671,000	9,177,000	4,676,000	13,853,000

* "General" includes the products of all countries; the "Special" trade only the products and manufactures of the respective countries.

NAVIGATION.

YEARS.	Entered (with Cargoes.)						Departed (with Cargoes.)						TOTAL (with Cargoes.)					
	French		Foreign		TOTAL.		French		Foreign		TOTAL.		French		Foreign		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.		Tonnage.		Vessels.		Tonnage.		Vessels.		Tonnage.		Vessels.		Tonnage.		Vessels.	
	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.	No.	tons.
1840.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	537	..	..	3	537	3	537	..	..	3	537
1841.....	27	4891	3	620	30	5,511	15	2660	7	1422	22	4082	42	7,551	10	2042	52	9,593
1842.....	33	6446	17	3658	50	10,104	22	4078	5	749	27	4827	55	10,524	22	4407	77	14,931
1843.....	44	8505	15	3060	59	11,565	17	3206	15	2963	32	6169	61	11,711	30	6023	91	17,734
1844.....	38	7354	14	2651	52	10,005	25	4901	4	881	29	5782	63	11,255	18	3532	81	15,787

N.B.—The flag of Buenos Ayres is not included in the above table.

CUSTOMS DUTIES AND REGULATIONS OF BUENOS AYRES.

The war and anarchy which has so long disturbed the Argentine states; the blockades and interruptions of navigation, which have driven trade into so many different and irregular channels, have caused that customs regulations and tariffs to have been far less regarded than in any of the other Spanish American republics. Contraband trade has consequently been carried on at such points as smugglers could the most safely and speedily run their goods, regardless of tariffs, into the country.

An illiberal scale of duties and prohibitions was promulgated by a decree, in December, 1835, that scale was modified in 1840 and 1841-2. By the decree of 1841, the following articles, which were before then prohibited to be imported, were admitted at various duties varying capriciously from twenty to fifty per cent on the value: viz.

Alphabets and spelling-books for the use of schools; *wheat*, at the rate of starch; rings of copper, bronze, and iron; handles of steel, iron, and common metal, for kettles, pails, &c.; cane-brooms; bullets of lead and cast balls; buttons and button-moulds of wood, horn, or bone; ormillas of one or more holes; steels for striking fire; iron buckles; bird-cages; *belts*, of cotton pure, or mixed wool; hoops for casks, &c.; tallow-candles; ploughshares, *of the shape of those used in the country*; bells for cattle; glue; kitchen-strainers and skimmers of tin, iron, or steel; axletrees of iron or steel; manufactured tin; all articles of iron-work for windows and doors; forms for hats, boots, and shoes; fringes for hammercloths, cloaks, &c.; galloons pure, or mixed with cotton or wool; window gratings; gridirons.

Clothing, articles of dress, &c.—Cloaks, called *buchos*; garters of cotton and of wool, pure or mixed.

All articles of copper and brass manufactured; butter moulds of iron; mustard, prepared; steel-yards; combs of all kinds; wheels for carriages; wooden pails; saddlery and harness; tissues for counterpanes, called *sobrepellones*, for horse-cloths, for cloaks, called *ponchos*.

The old tariff of 1835, appears to be thoroughly broken through, but we have no regular Buenos Ayres tariff which we can publish with any degree of accuracy, and the tariff of Monte Video hereafter introduced, may, until changed, be the probable average of the scale of duties to which goods will be subjected except those that will be run clandestinely past the customs.

Port Charges at Buenos Ayres.—The following is the last decree of the executive for levying tonnage duties at this port:—

The Argentine government has resolved, and does decree—

Article 1. From the 1st of January of the coming year, national vessels sailing from ports beyond sea, shall pay three dollars per ton.

2. Foreign vessels shall pay four dollars per ton, except those which, in virtue of existing treaties, are assimilated to national vessels.

3. Foreign vessels shall pay, for the visit of the health officer, twenty-five dollars, and the same amount for the bill of health.

4. Foreign vessels belonging to nations having no consul, and whose roll is made out by the captain of the port, shall pay forty dollars for it.

5. The duties fixed by the preceding articles shall be paid one-half on the entrance of the vessel, and the other half on her departure.

6. National and foreign vessels, which do not leave nor receive cargoes, shall pay one-half of the duties here established.

7. Let this decree be communicated, and published in the official register.

Until peace be re-established on the banks of the La Plata, we find it impossible to introduce any further commercial statements relative to Buenos Ayres.

CHAPTER XV.

CUSTOMS, REGULATIONS, AND TARIFF DUTIES OF THE REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY AND MONTE VIDEO.

THE commercial law in force in this republic is the old Spanish code, called the “*Ordenanzas de Bilbao*.” The commercial regulations and revenue laws equally affect the commerce of all foreign nations. A discrimination is, however, observed in favour of national vessels, in regard to tonnage and other dues; also, a trifling difference in the direct tax of “*licence to trade*.” British ships and their cargoes can, under treaty, claim the same privileges as Monte Videan vessels and their cargoes.

All laws affecting commerce are independant of local legislation, but emanate directly from the supreme government, and are liable to such changes only as the political exigencies of the republic may require.

The present revenue laws affecting foreign commerce are the following:—

1st. The custom-house law of June, 1837, establishing the rate of duty on imports and exports, and the different ports open to foreign flags.

2nd. A law, revised yearly, imposing a direct tax for licence to trade, in which a trifling advantage is secured to citizens of the republic.

3rd. An addition of sixteen per cent to the duties on imports, and five per cent on exports, were imposed to assist in meeting the extraordinary expenses of the war with Buenos Ayres.

4th. A decree, consequent on the declaration of war against Buenos Ayres, interdicting commercial intercourse with that state.

(It is stated, however, that no real obstruction is offered to the trade between the two countries, so far as relates to foreign flags.)

Customs' Laws.—The Senate and House of Representatives of the Oriental Republic of Uruguay, in Congress assembled, decree, &c., concerning importations:—

ARTICLE 1. Free from duty—printing presses, paper, and other articles exclusively for this purpose; printed books; geographic maps; barks, for tanning; ashes; staves and hoops of wood; calf skins; cow and horse hides, raw; common salt; gold and silver,

coined or in bullion ; and live animals, for promoting industry and improving the breed of the country.

2. Iron, in bars, sheet, wire, or plates; brass and steel, unwrought ; tools, in general, except those expressed in article 6 ; woods ; saltpetre ; gypsum ; fossil coal ; fur, rabbit, hare, beaver, and other furs used for hats ; cables and cordage ; tar ; ornaments of gold and silver, and watches shall pay six per cent.

3. Linen cambrics ; silk, raw or spun ; fabrics of silk ; laces and ribbons of silk or linen ; gold and silver embroidery, and fine jewellery of gold and silver, shall pay ten per cent.

4. All goods and effects, natural or industrial, not expressed in the articles of the present law, and the common serge, called "bajaras," used for bags and other purposes, shall pay nineteen per cent.

5. Sugar ; maté ; tea ; cacao ; cinnamon ; sweet oil ; spices ; drugs ; provisions in general ; woods wrought ; and tobacco in leaf, shall pay twenty-four and a half per cent.

6. Wheat ; pastes of flour (as maccaroni, &c.) ; buscuit ; starch ; cheese ; butter ; pork and beef in pickle ; trunks and boxes, empty or containing goods ; moveables ; hats ; manufactures of sheet tin ; lamp oil ; rings (large) of iron or brass ; false jewellery ; perfumery ; soap ; doors and windows with the iron-work therefore ; window grates and balconies ; spits of iron ; crowbars ; ploughshares of the kind used in the country ; shoes, for horses and mules ; tallow candles ; carriages of all kinds, not intended for carrying heavy loads ; saddles and horse trappings ; clothing, made up ; caps ; dress combs ; feathers ; artificial flowers and other ornaments for the head ; hosiery boots and shoes of all kinds ; china ware ; glass, cut, or gold figured ; mirrors ; liquors ; ardent spirits ; wines ; vinegar ; cider ; and chewing tobacco, shall pay thirty-one and a half per cent.

7. Flour ; meat, dry salted ; cigars ; and playing cards, shall pay thirty-five per cent.

8. *Storage duty (almacenage) on all articles deposited, viz. : one-eighth per cent per month on dry goods ; thirty-seven cents and a half on each pipe of liquids ; nine and three-eighths cents on each barrel of flour ; nine and three-eighths cents on each 203 pounds eight ounces (avoirdupois) of tobacco, yerba, sugar, and other articles of weight, except minerals, which shall pay three and one-eighth cents on the same weight ; and boxes of wine, liquors, or other liquids, which shall pay twelve cents and a half for every eight boxes.*

9. In case of doubt arising in relation to the payment of storage duty, from the effects not having been expressed in the present article, the duty will be collected on the weight, nine and three-eighths cents per 203 pounds eight ounces.

10. Hides, dry, bull, cow, ox, horse, twelve cents and a half : calf and colt skins, six cents and one-quarter.

11. Hides, salted, eighteen cents and seven-eighths.

12. Steers, heifers, breeding animals, and mules, one dollar.

13. Mares, colts, and geldings, 1 dollar 50 cents.

14. All products of the country, not comprehended in the foregoing articles, shall pay one quarter per cent on the market prices, as export duty.

15. The following are excepted : salt meat, wool, pulse, grain of all kinds, flour, tanned hides, and all works of art ; foreign goods which have paid import duty, those which clear to be discharged in ports inside of the capes of the River de la Plata, and those which may be warehoused for exportation, shall be free from duty.

16. Silver, coined and in bullion, one per cent ; gold of the same description, one quarter per cent.

17. Warehousing, as yet, is not permitted, except in the custom-house of Monte Video.

18. The length of the deposit is indefinite, so long as the articles continue uninjured.

19. The state is responsible for the value of effects deposited, except in cases of fire, the inculpability of those having charge being proven.

20. Goods deposited shall always be at the disposition of the depositors during the office hours of the custom-house, and the alcalde is obliged to order the stores to be opened at their request.

21. The introducers may effect sales by wholesale, without being obliged to remove the merchandise in warehouse.

22. The executive power is authorised to establish warehouses in any of the custom-houses of the state, under the restrictions which circumstances may demand.

23. By the present law, the following ports are qualified (*habilitados*): Monte Video, Maldonado, Colonia, Soriano, Paisandee, Yaguaron, and the inland port of Tacuarembó.

Transit.

24. Is permitted and free from all export duty: all foreign effects leaving the deposito of Monte Video for foreign marts, or for other depositos which may be established in any transit custom-house.

25. Is permitted and free from import duty, in transit from a foreign country into the state, the following articles: yerba maté, tobacco in leaf, cotton (raw or spun), hides and tallow, if their destination is to one of the qualified ports of the state.

26. Is also permitted, and free from duty, the transit for foreign ports of the effects expressed in the foregoing article, by way of the River Uruguay.

27. The government will establish rules necessary to advance this class of commerce, and retains the right of determining the precise points where goods in transit to foreign marts shall be introduced.

General Dispositions.

28. The duties will be regulated by the wholesale market prices; the calculations to be made by a surveyor and two merchants, at the time of despatch of the effects at the customs' office.

29. The merchants mentioned in the foregoing article shall be comprehended in a list of twelve, which shall be formed every six months by the "tribunal del consulado," and who shall alternate by fours, each month, to be designated by the collector-general.

30. In case of disagreement between the surveyors, or objection on the part of those interested, for any difference which exceeds ten per cent, it shall be decided by the collector-general and two merchants, drawn by lot from said list, without recourse.

31. The judges, once assembled, shall not separate without having pronounced their decision, which will be carried into effect.

32. The operations of the surveyor and his colleagues shall be published, and the former shall be obliged to give account thereof to such merchants as may request it.

33. The government retains authority to establish special rules, in cases where, from local exigencies, the punctual execution of the dispositions of the present law cannot be obtained.

34. The dispositions of the present law cannot be altered until after six months from its publication.

35. Said dispositions shall take effect, with regard to importations from ports north of the equator, in six months from its publication; from ports south of the equator, in three months; from ports within the capes of the River de la Plata, one month: and in fifteen days on goods and effects in deposit.

36. The duties established by the law of the 26th of January, 1831, of one per cent "consulado," and one-half per cent "hospital," on imports, are comprehended in this law, and their respective products shall be separated and applied to the objects to which they are destined.

Addition to the Custom Laws of the State.

Article 1. All those effects comprehended in articles 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th, of the general law, shall pay eight per cent as extraordinary subsidy.

2. Those effects designated in Article 5 as "provisions in general," woods wrought, wheat, pastes of flour, and flour, are excepted.

3. Common salt shall pay, at importation, twenty-five cents per three bushels.

4. Tallow, unmanufactured, shall pay, at exportation, eight per cent.

5. The foregoing articles shall take effect, with regard to importations from ports north of the equator, in six months from its publication; from south of the equator, in three

months; from ports within the capes of the Rio de la Plata, in one month; and in fifteen days for articles and effects in deposit.

6. This law shall be revised next year.

7. In addition to the duties specified above, all articles of importations shall pay eight per cent as "subsidy," except flour, which shall pay no additional duty than the eight per cent "extraordinary," designated by the law of the 29th of March; articles of export, five per cent, and jerked beef thirty-seven cents and a half per 103 pounds.

DECREE.—*Foreign Flour.*

Article 1. When the price of this article is upwards of twelve current dollars, it shall pay, as a maximum, four dollars per barrel; and when the price is below ten current dollars, it shall pay three current dollars per barrel, as a minimum.—*Rondeau, Monte Video, June 11, 1839.*

DECREE.

Article 1. Fifteen days from the publication of the present decree, all goods which may be despatched from the custom-house, and which are subject to importation duty, shall pay eight per cent additional, as a war duty extraordinary, to continue until pacific relations shall have been established.

2. From and after the same date, all articles of exportation which are actually liable to duty shall pay five per cent additional to same.

3. The executive power is authorised to extend the operation of this law, so far as regards imports, to the further term of fifteen days, to be counted in succession.—*Monte Video, June 18, 1839.*

DECREE.—*Extra Duty.*

Article 1. Jerked beef shall pay three rials per quintal on being exported, from and after the 1st day of May next. This shall be continued two years, to commence from said date, in event of the especial circumstances by which the market of this republic is affected should not have definitively ceased.

2. Establishments which are liable for patents shall pay one-third more in 1841, in addition to that which corresponds to the present year, and during the said year of 1841 the stamp paper shall be subject to an additional twenty per cent.

3. All goods which may be despatched for consumption from the custom-house of the state, and which are already liable to duties (with the exception of wheat and flour), shall pay, after fifteen days from the promulgation of the present law, in addition to the custom-house subsidy law already established, eight per cent *ad valorem*; which recharge shall, however, cease from the moment the loan towards the payment of which the proceeds of the five and eight per cent subsidy extraordinary shall have been satisfied. The payment of the duties exacted by this law shall be paid in cash.

Sanctioned by the "Sala de Sessiones," in Monte Video, April 7, 1840, and its receipt acknowledged by the minister of finance on the 12th instant, at which date its fulfilment is decreed.—*Monte Video, April 1, 1840.*

Tonnage Duties and Port Charges on Foreign Vessels.—Tonnage duty, three rials, currency, per ton; guard on board, eight rials, currency, per diem; hospital fees, four dollars four rials, currency; entering and clearing, thirty-five dollars, currency; harbour pilotage, ten dollars, currency; custom-house vessel, one dollar, currency.

Pilotage from Cape St. Mary's to Monte Video.—Twelve feet pay 50 dollars; thirteen feet pay 60 dollars; fourteen feet pay 70 dollars; fifteen feet pay 90 dollars; sixteen feet pay 110 dollars; seventeen feet pay 130 dollars; eighteen feet pay 150 dollars; nineteen feet pay 180 dollars.

Port Charges on National Vessels from Sea.—Harbour pilotage, 2 dollars; tonnage duty, 2 rials per ton; entering and clearing, 10 dollars 6 cents. Coasting vessels pay no port charges.

Currency.—The currency of the country is computed in dollars, rials, and reis, viz.: —100 reis, equal to one rial; eight rials, equal to one current dollar.

The current dollar (nominal) is sixteen and two-thirds less than the Spanish (or silver dollar without pillars). The Spanish pillared dollar, and the patacone or patriot dollar, are equal to 960 reis, and twenty per cent more than the current dollar.

Doubloons, Spanish or patriot, are a legal tender for sixteen Spanish dollars or patacones; the former, however, generally command a premium of one per cent. All business transactions are settled in gold and silver coins.

Weights and Measures.—100 lbs. equal to 103 lbs. avoirdupois; one quintal, equal to 100 lbs. Spanish; one arroba, equal to 25 ditto; one pesada of dry or ox hides, equal to 40 ditto; one pesada of salted ox hides, equal to 75 ditto.

Dry Measure.—One fanega of wheat, equal to 233 lbs. Spanish; one fanaga of salt, equal to 590 ditto; a fanega is equal to three and three-quarters English bushels; a moyo of salt is about sixty English bushels, or two and a quarter tons, and averages about seventeen fanegas.

Liquid Measure.—In ascertaining the contents of casks of liquids, the same instruments are used as in England, and consequently all liquids are bought and sold by the gallon.

Long Measure.—100 yards English are equal to 108 varas Spanish; 100 varas Spanish are equal to ninety-seven varas Buenos Ayres.

VALUE of Merchandise Imported into Monte Video during the Year 1835.

FROM WHAT COUNTRY.	Custom-House Value.	FROM WHAT COUNTRY.	Custom-House Value.
	dollars' currency.		dollars' currency.
England.....	993,954	Brought forward.....	2,679,132
France.....	351,602	Hamburg.....	33,472
Buenos Ayres.....	275,935	Mediterranean.....	352,245
Brazil.....	706,428	Portugal.....	12,720
United States.....	333,811	Chili.....	14,702
Bremen.....	17,402	Spain.....	3,127
Carried forward.....	2,679,132	Total.....	3,095,398

BRITISH and Foreign Trade with the Port of Monte Video during the Year 1835.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	number.	tons	dollars' currency.	number	tons	dollars' currency
British.....	54	10,571	993,954	57	10,978	793,885
Monte Videan, coastwise.....	334	10,583	not known	no return outwards		no account.
foreign.....	93	9,430	"	"	"	"
French.....	32	6,668	351,602	36	7,486	486,149
United States.....	41	10,832	333,811	35	9,615	457,056
Spanish.....	3	298	emigrants	3	298	245,031
Brazilian.....	74	9,130	706,428	41	5,117	282,734
Sardinian and Spanish.....	81	15,290	352,245	66	12,752	299,035
Portuguese.....	20	2,197	12,720*	20	2,197	none*
Buenos Ayrean.....	137	9,496	275,935†	no returns		no account†
Bremen.....	5	745	17,402	..	..	
Hamburg.....	5	1,012	33,472	..	..	53,275
Belgian.....	1	274	} 3,127 salt	..	..	
Danish.....	5	695		..	..	
Swedish.....	3	823		..	..	123,170
Dutch.....	2	426		..	..	
Prussian.....	2	440	14,702	..	..	
Chilian.....	1	328		..	..	
Total.....	893	89,238	3,095,398	..	..	2,765,401

* These are principally slavers in ballast after landing their slaves in Brazil.

† This number includes packets and pilot-boats.

In 1844 no produce of this republic has been shipped from the port of Monte Video in consequence of the war. Produce to a very great extent, which otherwise would have passed through this custom-house, has been shipped on all parts of the coast, principally at the port of Bucco, a few miles from this city, in the territory occupied by General Oribe's troops, and at Rocha and Castillos, villages between Cape St. Mary and the Brazilian frontier, occupied alternately by one or other of the two contending parties. The greater portion of the produce of this country is derived from the remote departments on the eastern side of the republic, and has been conveyed during the war to the neighbouring port of Rio Grande in the empire of Brazil, from which it has been exported to different parts of the world.

Q U A N T I T Y.	Price.	Amount.	Exchange.	Value.
	dollars.	dollars.	s. d.	£ s. d.
20,632½ gold ounces.....	19½	396,144.	3 7	70,975 16 0
145,666 silver patacones.....	1½	174,799.160		31,318 3 9
Total.....		570,943,160	3 7	102,293 19 9

NOTE.—The city of Monte Video being besieged and blockaded there have been no exports during the year 1844. All the produce which had been warehoused in Monte Video previous to the siege was exported during the year 1843. Large sums of specie have been shipped from this port, but as the greater portion has been smuggled on board, no correct statement can be made: the following sums, however, have been passed through the custom-house:—

CHARGES imposed by Public Authority on British Shipping in the Port of Monte Video.

C H A R G E S.	Currency.	Sterling.	C H A R G E S.	Currency.	Sterling.
	dlrs. reis.	£ s. d.		dlrs. reis.	£ s. d.
One stamp for opening register to discharge.....	10 640	1 18 8	Bill of health.....	4 0	0 14 4
Three stamps for do. do.	0 720	0 3 2	Certificate of nationality.....	0 480	0 2 2
One stamp for closing register..	0 240	0 1 1	Anchorage.....per ton	0 300	0 1 3½
One stamp for permit to sail in ballast or cargo.....	0 240	0 1 1	Custom-house guards....per day	1 0	0 3 7
One stamp for opening register to load.....	10 640	1 18 8	Hospital dues.....per man	0 240	0 1 1
One stamp for closing register with cargo.....	10 640	1 18 8	Writer's fee at the custom-house on each vessel, according to the length of the manifest.....	8 0	1 8 8
			Do. do. or.....	12 0	2 3 0

. Average rate of exchange, forty-three pence sterling per current dollar of 800 reis.

N.B.—No vouchers are given by public authorities for any sums paid by shipping.

The only difference which exists between vessels under the flag of this country and British vessels with respect to the charges made on them is, that the national vessels pay 200 reis per ton for anchorage, while British vessels pay 300 reis per ton. The same difference exists between national vessels and the vessels of all other countries.

At the present time there are no advantages enjoyed by national or other foreign vessels from which British vessels are excluded.

Formerly national vessels had the exclusive privilege of engaging in the coasting trade, and no foreign vessel could engage in it. This was, by a decree of the oriental government, done away with during the period when hostilities were being carried on against this city by the Argentine squadron, as foreign vessels could then only be employed in transporting cattle from different parts of the coasts of this republic to this city, then under a rigorous siege.

It is probable, however, that foreign vessels will be deprived of this privilege so soon as the war shall cease.

CHAPTER XVI.

COMMERCIAL LAWS AND TRADE OF PARAGUAY.

FROM the success which has attended the first attempt at opening a direct trade with Paraguay, and from the improved cultivation of that state, we are justified in concluding, that were a termination put to the unnatural and unjust war carried on by Rosas, and to the interruption which he has established to the navigation of the River Plate above Buenos Ayres, civilised nations might carry on a lucrative trade with Paraguay and the interior states of the Argentine Republic. Even the Dictator Francia manifested some desire to establish commercial relations with England. In 1841 Mr. Hughes, a British subject, proceeded with a cargo of merchandise to the port of *Neénbucú, Villa del Pilar*. He was well received by the authorities who succeeded Dr. Francia, and descended the river, having

left a considerable surplus of British manufactures in Paraguay, over the returns of country produce brought down the Plate by him. He was, however, prevented from re-ascending by Rosas.—(See Mr. Hughes Letter hereafter.)

CUSTOM-HOUSE LAW OF PARAGUAY.

Of Maritime Imports.

ARTICLE 1. All machinery, instruments of agriculture, science and art, all classes of geographic maps are free from duty.

2. Twenty-five per cent will be paid upon raw and spun silk, silk manufactures, network and laces, with or without embroidery of gold and silver, and with or without jewels—all clocks and watches—jewellery of silver and gold—and every work of wood.

3. Forty per cent will be paid upon all furniture, mirrors, carriages, saddles, and their appurtenances, ready-made clothing, hats, shoes, ponchos, horse-cloths, leathern manufactures, liquors, wines, spirits, vinegar, ale, cyder, tobacco, cigars, and all kinds of perfumery.

4. Three rials per fanega will be paid upon salt.

5. Fifteen per cent will be paid upon all natural productions and manufactures which may not be enumerated in this decree.

6. One rial for each package will be paid upon all articles and manufactures which may enter into deposit, if such deposit does not exceed the term of one month,—beyond this term two rials per month will be paid upon each package.

7. Gold and silver in coin or in bars are free from duty.

8. The ports of entry, established, *for the present*, by the sovereign congress of this republic, are the Villa del Pilar (Neémbucú) and Itapua.

Of Maritime Exports.

ARTICLE 1. Hides (ox, cow, calf) will pay in full two rials for each hide.

2. Horse hides will pay one rial for each hide.

3. Yerba maté will pay one rial for each arroba. Tobacco will pay four rials for each arroba.

4. All the productions of this republic, not included in the foregoing articles, will pay upon their exportation five per cent upon the current value.

5. All foreign articles and manufactures which may have paid import duties may be re-exported free of duty.

6. Also are excepted for a limited time, those who may prepare the indigo of the country for sale.

7th.—Those who may prepare twist tobacco according to the manner of Brazil, and snuffs; those who may establish the manufacture of vegetable oils; those who may manufacture flour of Mandioca, as it is prepared in Brazil; those who may preserve and augment the preparation of wines, spirits, and all classes of liquors; those who may establish wholesale factories for the making of sugar and soap; those who may prepare the grain dye of cochineal in the country; those who may establish mills for the cleansing of rice; those who may establish manufactories of pure and white wax, or who may set up hives of bees for the production of honey and wax; those who may discover and establish any other useful invention, and who put it into practice, shall also have the same privilege of freedom from duties in the manner expressed.

8. It is entirely prohibited in all the territory [of the republic (as it has been hitherto), to export gold or silver, coined or otherwise, under penalty of confiscation, together with a fine to an amount equal to that which it is intended to export.

9. Goods deposited in bond will pay two per cent *ad valorem* upon their re-exportation.

The Manner of collecting Duties.

ARTICLE 1. The *ad valorem* duties will be fixed upon the current market value of the article, calculated by the collector and two merchants, at the time when the goods may be despatched from the custom-house deposit.

2. The merchants alluded to in the preceding article will be named by the collector.

3. In case of reclamation on the part of the importer, or that of the collector, and which may exceed ten per cent, the delegate or commandant, with two merchants newly chosen, will decide without appeal.

4. The arbiters met will not separate until they have pronounced their judgment, which will be carried into execution.

5. These operations will be public, and testimony will be given thereof, when required.

6. The avaluation effected as it is ordered by the first article of this chapter, and signed by the collector and two merchants, will be remitted to the supreme government for its deliberation.

7. From the present year the custom-house duties will be paid one-half in gold or silver currency, and the remainder as at present.

8. All decrees are hereby repealed, which may be in contradiction to this present, which shall be revised every year, for expedient purposes. And that this may reach the knowledge of all, let it be published, and copies affixed in all the customary places; and let testimonies thereof be despatched to all the towns, departments, and parishes of this jurisdiction.—Given in the palace of the supreme government in Assumption, capital of the republic of Paraguay, this thirteenth day of January, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two.

Letter dated Buenos Ayres, 10th February, 1841, from Mr. Hughes.

SIR,

In the month of June last year, I made an application to her Britannic Majesty's government, setting forth my desire to visit the province of Paraguay, asking for a recommendatory letter, and a special passport to that effect. I am now in possession of an official despatch, addressed by Lord Palmerston to his Excellency Don Gaspar De Francia, Dictator of Paraguay, requesting, in the name of the British government, my admission into that territory, and soliciting his excellency's good offices in my favour.

Before I take any further steps in the undertaking, it appears to me convenient and requisite to acquaint the government of the Argentine Confederation with my object, and to endeavour to obtain its sanction to the enterprise.

To this end I venture to trespass upon the attention of your excellency, and beg to be permitted to detail my views, and the means which I propose to employ in their attainment.

I purpose to purchase a suitable vessel, and to fit her out in the port of Buenos Ayres, under the British flag, putting on board a general cargo of such articles as are likely to suit the wants of Paraguay; and when ready, to proceed up the River Parana, direct to the port of Neémbucú, there to deliver my papers to the authorities, and to await the decision of the government to my application for the admission of my vessel and cargo.

*Assumption, Capital of the Republic of Paraguay,
18th January, 1842.*

We send unto you a passport, duly signed and sealed, returning that which was presented unto us, issued in your favour by the minister secretary of state for foreign affairs of her Britannic Majesty.

We also send unto you three official communications, addressed, the first unto the most excellent minister secretary of state in the department of foreign affairs to her Britannic Majesty, in reply to the official note which his excellency directed through your hands unto our predecessor the deceased dictator; the second unto his excellency the minister plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty in Buenos Ayres, requesting his excellency to send forward by the earliest opportunity the above-mentioned despatch to

the foreign office ; and the last to his honour the consul-general of her Britannic Majesty in Monte Video.

With this opportunity we repeat unto you the surety which we verbally gave unto you for your mercantile operations in the port of the Villa del Pilar (Neémbecú) and of Itapua, appointed for trade by the sovereign congress of this republic.

We trust you will not forget our especial charge, to signify to his excellency the minister plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty in Buenos Ayres, the high appreciation with which we have received the felicitation of his excellency, assuring him of our desire to preserve a pure friendship with her Britannic Majesty and all her people.

God preserve you many years.

CARLOS ANTONIO LOPEZ,
MARIANO ROQUE ALONZO.

To Richard B. Hughes, subject of her Britannic Majesty.

The Consuls of the Republic of Paraguay.—Inasmuch as the British subject, Richard B. Hughes, returns to Buenos Ayres conveying official communications to the most excellent minister secretary of state to her Britannic Majesty in the department of foreign affairs, and to his excellency the minister plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty in Buenos Ayres, and to his honour the consul-general of her Britannic Majesty in Monte Video.

We hereby command and enjoin all the civil and military authorities of our dependancy, with earnest request and charge to those of other jurisdictions, not to oppose any impediment to him on his journey, without just cause, but rather to afford him all the assistance he may require. To which effect we have issued the present passport, duly signed and sealed in Assumption, capital of the republic of Paraguay, this eighteenth day of January, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two.

(Signed as above.)

The Buenos Ayrean government having refused to allow Mr. Hughes to send a vessel up the Parana for his property, in the following terms in a reply given by Senor Arana to Mr. Mandeville's request :—

“That Mr. Hughes's application could not be listened to—no permissions were granted to go beyond the limits of the province of Buenos Ayres. That the government would not give a licence for Entre Rios, and certainly not for Paraguay. That if he had taken up a larger amount of goods than he could bring returns, for it was no ground whatever upon which he could make a claim for a further licence.”

Mr. Mandeville considered Mr. Arana's answer as final and conclusive. Its injustice cannot be too severely condemned.

BOOK VIII.

HAYTI, AND FOREIGN WEST INDIES.

CHAPTER I.

COLONIAL POLICY OF FRANCE.

BURKE, in his account of the European settlements in America, extols the colonial policy of France, under the ancient *régime*, as constituting in system and in practice the perfection of administrative wisdom.

Whoever will examine the history of Canada, under France, and of the French West Indies, will discover that Burke was dazzled by the great value of the tropical products which were cultivated in the French possessions in the West Indies, and not by a full knowledge of the French administration, in those colonies. If the French colonial system had, according to its theory, been administered justly in the colonies, France would at this day have possessed Hayti: naturally one of the most fertile and splendid islands of America.

The French colonial system was, certainly, so constituted that it might well allure even Mr. Burke, and others, who only read of its organisation, into an admiration of its theory, and, into a belief that it was perfectly adapted for the wise and practical administration of the colonial governments.

We have examined the French colonial system, beyond France,—we have investigated its executive, legislative, and judicial administration in the Canadas, in Cape Breton, in the French West Indian islands, and in Guayana, and we have, especially in Hayti, found, it to be, in practice, a fallacious commercial and fiscal policy, partial and unjust in its administration, and very far from being divested of judicial corruption.

The French colonies were placed under the superintendence of a council of commerce in Paris; presumed to be judiciously constituted; its members being twelve chief officers of the crown. This council was assisted by deputies, presumed, also, to be chosen from the richest and most intelligent merchants and traders in the commercial towns of France. These deputies were liberally paid, for their attendance in Paris, from the funds of the cities in which they were chosen. This council sat once a week. Their duties were, to propose measures for redressing all commercial grievances,—for rendering prosperous declining,—

and reviving extinct trades,—for creating new branches of commerce,—for promoting manufactures already existing, for inventing and fostering new fabrics, to find out new markets for the products of French industry,—and, in general, to watch over all the commercial affairs of France, of the French colonies, and of foreign trade. The French plantations were placed under the especial care of this council. Its decrees, when drawn up, were reported to the royal council ; which, almost without exception, issued a royal edict to enforce the decisions of the council of commerce.

This system was eminently French ; that is to say, it was a system of centralisation, by which every thing was to be done by the paid council of commerce ; nothing by the shipowners, merchants, manufacturers, or colonists, excepting by the dictation of this centralised absolute council of commerce.

In each colony there was a governor, who was the representative of the king, or rather of the council of commerce,—an executive (not legislative) royal council,—the members of which were selected by the crown (or by the council of commerce),—an *intendant*, who was a check against the governor, and also trustee of the king's rights and revenues. The council was presumed to be a check upon both governor and intendant, in order to protect the people. This system of appointing one authority over the other was, in principle, much in the same spirit as the colonial system of Spain ; with the exception of the latter being delegated to more powerful authorities : that is, independent powers being vested in the three separate authorities of the viceroy, the church, and the *audiencia real*.

All salaries were paid by the crown ; all the navigation and trade of the colonies were confined to France. There were few taxes, and no import duties, levied in the colonies ; the duties on exports were only about two per cent *ad valorem* on the export from the colonies, and import into France. The amount of the salaries of the governors and all other officers,—the expenses of erecting fortifications and all other public edifices and buildings, were drawn by the intendant-general on the French treasury at Paris.* The expenses of the French colonies, including their garrisons and defences, imposed an enormous tax upon the French taxpayers at home, and tended, in a great degree, to cause those fiscal difficulties which finally involved the nation in its first sanguinary revolution.

The French colonial policy, instead of being the perfection of wisdom, as eulogised by Mr. Burke, was one maintained at an enormous expense, and with little advantage to France. The exclusive colonial trading system was of no real benefit to France. It was rendered abortive by the intrepid and fearless British-American, and West Indian smugglers ; and by the connivance of the officers of the French government in the colonies. Notwithstanding the presumed intelligence of the council of commerce, its decrees were often at variance with facts,

* See an account of the enormous losses which followed the non-payment of the bills of the intendant in Canada—Article *Canada*, Book II.

and obstructive to practical undertakings in the plantations. The governors, intendants, and colonial councils, instead of the one checking the other, each found its interests best promoted by overlooking or tacitly approving their separate mal-practices.

It was argued in favour of the French colonial system, that the fisheries* of Newfoundland and Cape Breton flourished, and that the sugar plantations in the West Indies had thriven even more prosperously than those of England, and infinitely more so than those of Spain. We admit the fact; but if we examine the causes, these were, first, that the fishermen and sugar planters of France, aided in no way towards the colonial expenditure and defences; secondly, that the French fishermen, as they are still found to be in the ports of Boulogne, Dieppe, and Brittany, were always hardy, industrious, and economical seamen and fish-takers; and, lastly, that the French sugar-planters were generally intelligent, and economical until they became rich. But that the colonial policy was the most injudicious and expensive that could have been conceived with regard to the people of France; and, almost the worst that could have been planned for the retention of the colonies, is amply proved by facts, and especially by the history of Hayti, at one time the most prosperous of all the French possessions.

CHAPTER II.

HAYTI, OR SAN DOMINGO.

WE have in the first book of this volume briefly sketched an account of this magnificent and naturally fertile island, from the period of its first settlement by Columbus, to the occupation and colonisation of about one-third of it by France. The Spaniards had gradually neglected Hayti, after robbing the aborigines of their wealth, and destroying them by forced labour and sanguinary cruelties. It is true that a few, of the least adventurous but most industrious, Spaniards remained at Hayti, and cultivated sugar, ginger, and cacao; but, with the exception of the archiepiscopal establishment in the city of St. Domingo, the island was to a great degree abandoned by emigrations to Cuba, and especially to Mexico.

When the French colonised the western parts of the island, they even extended advantages to the Spanish farms and planters, by purchasing their cattle and horses; and, by breaking through the Spanish colonial system, they supplied the Spaniards in Hayti with manufactured goods at cheaper rates, and in greater abundance, than they could be obtained from Spain.

The cultivation of sugar, cacao, and ginger, was in consequence revived, and

* See Fisheries of America, Vol. II.

the culture of indigo, and tobacco was extended on the Spanish plantations. The great portion of the Spanish division remained, however, uncultivated, though it yielded the benefit of grazing cattle.

Hayti is estimated at nearly 400 miles long and from 60 to 150 broad. Its area is about 29,000 square miles, or 18,816,000 square acres. Near its centre rise the Cibao mountains, the highest of which are estimated at nearly 9000 feet above the sea; lower ranges ramify from these chiefly from east to west. On the east highlands rise among extensive plains, in parts without trees. These places afford good pastures: the Llanos, especially along the southern coast, which extend about eighty miles from the town of St. Domingo to Higuey, being about thirty miles in breadth. The Llanos are separated by a range of hills from the plain of La Vega on the north, extending east to west about fifty miles, and for about thirty miles in breadth. This plain is very fertile, watered by the Yuna down to the Bay of Samana. The low and swampy peninsula of Samana, on the north side of this bay, is joined to the mainland by a low isthmus covered by the sea at spring tides. Along the northern shores west of Samana, the mountains rise abruptly from the sea to a considerable elevation, with here and there a few slopes, long the shore, of lower lands. Behind these the wide and fertile plain or valley of Santiago is drained by the River Yague. Along the southern and northern shores of the western part of Hayti, small tracts of level and cultivable land occur only in detached portions, but between the hilly ridges are the valleys, or rather plains of Artibonite and Cul de Sac; the one is irrigated by the Artibonite the other covered partly by the salt lake Laguna de Henriquillo, and has no outlet, and by the fresh-water lake Saumache. The region between the mountains of Cibao and the southern coast comprises high hills and ravines, with but few inhabitants. The soil of the plains and valleys yields the most luxuriant vegetation, and the forest trees of the mountains are of gigantic growth. The most valuable trees are mahogany, lignum vitæ, ironwood, and dyewoods. Wild fowl, turtle, and excellent fish are abundant on the coast.

The coast in most parts is rocky, with numerous harbours for coasting vessels, some of which are capacious, with deep water. Port St. Nicholas, is about six miles long, and sheltered by mountains of considerable height. The harbour of Cape François, on the north coast of the island, is spacious, has good anchorage, but not thoroughly sheltered. The Bay of Samana affords good anchorage, but it is not frequented, being unhealthy. The harbour of San Domingo is exposed to the southerly winds—it has good holding ground. Port-au-Prince has two harbours, formed by islets; both afford good and sheltered anchorage. Gonaives is a safe harbour, with water sufficiently deep for large vessels. The whole island is divided into six *departments* and thirty-three *arrondissements*.

PORT-AU-PRINCE, the capital of Hayti, is situated in the Bay of Gonaives. The streets are straight, and tolerably wide and commodious, but the houses in

general are mean. Its trade is chiefly with the United States and Jamaica; population about 30,000. The town of Cape Haitien, on the northern coast, has about 12,000 inhabitants, with some trade. San Domingo, formerly the Spanish capital, has about 15,000 inhabitants. Its former trade in jerked beef, cattle, and hides, has nearly vanished.

Population.—The number of inhabitants is variously estimated at from 600,000 and 1,000,000, being chiefly mulattoes or quadroons; we doubt if the whole population exceeds 700,000. The number of whites and pure negroes is small in comparison with the mulattoes, or descendants of Europeans and negroes, and of the descendants of aborigines, Europeans, or negroes.

From the variety of climate all the tropical as well as the products of the temperate climates will grow in perfection. In the plains, of the old Spanish part, the heat is nearly uniform, and varies in proportion to their distance from the mountains. In the plains the thermometer is sometimes at 99 deg. In the mountains it rarely rises above 72 deg. or 77 deg. There the nights are cool enough to render a warm blanket or covering necessary; and in the higher mountains even a fire is agreeable in the evenings. Violent heats and heavy rains render St. Domingo humid. Metals soon tarnish, particularly on the seashore, which is more unhealthy than the interior parts of the island. The south part of the island is subject to southern gales, so called, as not attended with such dreadful consequences as the hurricanes in the Windward Islands.

Roads.—These are little more than foot-paths, or tracks passable on horseback. The island is in general watered by rivers and brooks. Their courses are but short, and few of them navigable to any distance. The rivers which in dry weather hardly cover the pebbles on its bed, is changed by a tempestuous rain into a flood; and should the banks give way, the rivers spread in devastation over the plains. Many rivers are infested with alligators. The only lakes or ponds worth notice are those of Henriquelle and Saltpond.

French and Spanish Boundary.—Before the independence of the island its divisions and statistics, chiefly on the authority of French officers' reports, and on the documents prepared by Bryant Edwards, were as follows:—The division line which separated the French from the Spanish part of the island extended from the River Des Anses à Pitre or Pedernales on the south side, to that of Massacre on the north side, at the head of the Bay of Mancenille. It comprised about 6,000,000 acres of a generally fertile soil, with hills, valleys, woods, and streams.

Spanish Division.—The cantons or jurisdictions, beginning at the westernmost point of the old Spanish frontiers, on the south coast or narrows, were Baharuco, then possessed by fugitive Spanish and French negroes; Neyve, Azua, Bani or Vani, the city of St. Domingo, and territory dependent thereon, St.

Laurent des Mines, Samana, Cotuy, La Vega, St. Yago, Daxabon, St. Raphael, Hinche, Banique, and St. John of Maguana.

Population of this Division.—It was composed of whites, freed people, and slaves. There were also a few Creoles resembling the Indians, having long, straight, and black hair, and seemed to be a mixed race descended from the aborigines and the Spaniards.

The people of colour were excluded from almost all employments, civil as well as military, as long as the colour of their skin betrayed their origin; but the political constitution of the country admitted of no distinction *between the civil rights* of a white inhabitant and those of a free coloured person. The major part of the Spanish colonists were then of a mixed race: which in a great degree quashed the prejudice otherwise manifested. People of colour were, however, admitted to holy orders, as *curates*, but not to the upper dignities of priests and bishops. The slaves were said to be treated with extreme mildness, and usually fed as well as their masters. Few of the creoles could either read or write. Slavery had so rapidly diminished that when in 1798, there were over the whole Spanish part of the island, 125,000 inhabitants; of whom 110,000 were free, and 15,000 only slaves. The French portion of Hayti furnished three-fifths of the produce of all the French West India colonies put together, or more than ten millions sterling. At that period the dress and mode of living of the Spanish creoles indicated pride, laziness, and poverty. The capital had the aspect of neglect and decay; insignificant towns were seen here and there, near immense districts, called *hattes*, where cattle were raised with little care. The *hattes* comprised most of the Spanish settlements; and were of an extent far disproportioned to their utility. Some were several square leagues in extent, with not above 500 head of cattle, great and small. Some were called *horse-hattes*, others *cattle-hattes*, according to the animals they reared; others for breeding pigs were called *corails*. In these *hattes* the people lodged and lived miserably. The small provision farms called *canacos*, were under the poorer colonists, or freed people of colour.

When the insurrection broke out in the French part of Hayti, the slaves in the Spanish part adhered with wonderful fidelity to their masters. They did not revolt nor attempt to enrich themselves by plunder, rapine, or predatory robbery. The attachment of the slave towards his master, arose from the Spaniards in Hayti being eminently the most kind and indulgent slave-owners. They seldom inflicted punishment, except for flagrant acts of insubordination and theft; and treated their slaves, generally, with leniency and humanity; attended to their wants, and so far mitigated the bond of slavery as to be such little more than in name.

A jealousy and hatred had always existed between the French and Spanish colonies in Hayti, yet the smuggling trade was carried on with the Spaniards for horned cattle, mules, horses, &c.; the French supplied them with the manufac-

tures of Europe, and with slaves: both which they could not obtain by the regular course of importation at such moderate prices as from the French. The latter purchased, annually, about 25,000 head of horned cattle, and about 2500 mules and horses; the Spaniards also paid the French upwards of half a million of dollars, in specie, during the year for the purchase of goods, implements of agriculture, and negroes. Mahogany and dye-woods were legally exported to Spain, and clandestinely, to different parts of Europe, and to the United States, and, indirectly, to England. A trading intercourse of some extent, was carried on with the islands of Porto Rico, Cuba, and Jamaica: to both the latter islands cattle were exported, and mahogany and dye-woods, especially to Jamaica, more advantageously than to Europe, owing to procuring returns in a more direct and cheap way, than through Spain, or France.

The commerce with Porto Rico, and the Spanish main, was also productive of some profit to the people of Hayti, from the facilities of smuggling, by which the enormous duties on foreign European goods of thirty-four per cent, when imported from Spain, were in most cases saved; such goods were purchased in Hayti on far more moderate terms, being illicitly obtained from the French part of the island.

The trade to the United States of North America, was also of importance; North American vessels carried off large quantities of mahogany, hides, some coffee, and a little dye-wood, in return for flour, beef, pork, butter, salted herrings, and dried cod-fish: also some East India goods, and fir-timber, boards, and shingles.

CHAPTER III.

SKETCH OF THE REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE OF HAYTI.

It was propagated, at the time, in England, with considerable industry, that the revolution of Hayti began on the breaking out of the French revolution,—with a revolt of the slaves. This was not the fact; the slaves remained perfectly faithful to their owners, for about two years after the “declaration of rights” was promulgated in France.

The first symptom of revolt arose among the *Sans-mélées* or *Gens de Couleur*, that is mulattoes, and other coloured free people, who had so far increased in numbers as to form a very powerful body. Not being admitted to associate with, or to participate in the civil rights of, the whites, they became naturally and inveterately, opposed to the latter. Many of the native coloured people of the other French islands, were living in France at the time of the revolution. They

had been sent there in early life for their education: others were living in France who possessed considerable property, and sufficient intelligence to seize on that opportunity to effect changes in Hayti. A society was established at Paris about the same time, called, "*Amis des Noirs*" (Friends of the Blacks), which called for an immediate abolition of the slave-trade, as well as a general emancipation of all those who were at that time living in a state of slavery.

"With these people" (meaning the men of colour in France), says a French writer on this subject, "the society of *Amis des Noirs* formed an intimate connexion. Their personal appearance excited pity, and, co-operating with the spirit of the times and the representations of those who deeply sympathised upon principles of humanity with their condition, all ranks of people became clamorous against the white colonists, and their total annihilation was threatened."

When the national assembly promulgated their famous declaration, "*that all men are born and continue free and equal as to their rights*," the society of *Amis des Noirs*, aided by a society in London, and by the whole of the coloured people in France, lost no time in sending this declaration to Hayti, where the mulattoes, believed that the *French nation* was favourable to a restitution of their rights, and the full and unqualified enjoyment of all civil privileges. Several of the colonial civil officers and magistrates declaimed against slavery, and openly adopted the declaration of the national assembly of France; they were arrested by the provincial assemblies, which were composed of whites, and committed to prison, and such was the fury of the white mob, that M. Beau-dierre, a respectable magistrate at Petit Goane, was taken by force, and, in defiance of the civil powers, executed. During these and numerous other outrages, the negro slaves remained tranquil.

The governor of the colony had lost his popularity, with the whites, by his interposition in favour of the free coloured people. A general colonial assembly was convoked in January, 1790, by order from the king: which assembly decided that his instructions were imperfect and inapplicable, and that they should therefore proceed on a plan of their own. This confused state of the colonists, caused an apprehension, in France, that Hayti was likely to declare its independence, and the national assembly, in March, 1790, decided "That it never was the intention of the assembly to comprehend the interior government of the colonies in the constitution which they had framed for the mother country, or to subject them to laws, which were incompatible with their local establishments; they therefore authorised the inhabitants of each colony to signify, to the national assembly, their sentiments and wishes, concerning the plan of interior legislation and commercial arrangement, which would be most conducive to their prosperity." Then followed a resolution, "That the national assembly would not cause any innovation to be made, directly or indirectly, in any system of commerce, in which the colonies were already concerned."

The people of colour and the *Amis des Noirs*, were naturally alarmed by the

promulgation of so ambiguous a decree. Surprise and consternation attended its appearance in Hayti. It was construed into a further continuance of the slave-trade. It was considered by the colonists as conceding to them the power of settling their colonial constitutions, and absolving them from their allegiance to the crown of France.

A general assembly was convoked, after the decree had been received, and was held at St. Marc on the 16th of April, 1790. Its deliberations commenced, with a discussion upon the severity to which the people of colour were subjected under the military system of the colony; and it was decided, that they should not be required to perform more duty than was exacted from the whites.

M. Paynier, who was at this time governor-general of Hayti, had not that capacity of mind, nor the power of judgment and decision required for administering the affairs of a great colony in difficulties. Colonel Mauduit, a man of some ability and energy, arrived, and acquired such influence over the governor-general as to prevent a coalition which was about to take place between the assembly and the mulattoes. He declared himself the protector of the latter, and gained over the greater part of them. The planters were undecided—they wavered in their opinions—and were unfit to adopt measures for the tranquillity of the colony. It was evident that there was not one of them capable of energy and decision. They constituted a numerous class, without unanimous opinions or views. The decree of the general colonial assembly of the 28th of May was at least premature.*

On its promulgation it was believed, generally, that the “declaring of the colony an independent state, in imitation of the English American provinces,” was certain. No obedience, however, to the general assembly could be enforced. The white inhabitants of Cape François set the example of withdrawing all respect for that assembly, and of calling upon the governor-general

* The articles of the decree assume it as a branch of the prerogative of the crown to confirm or annul the acts of the colonial legislature at pleasure.

“First. The legislative authority, in every thing which relates to the internal concerns of the colony (*régime intérieur*), is vested in the assembly of his representatives, which shall be called ‘The General Assembly of the French Part of St. Domingo.’

“Secondly. No act of the legislative body, in what relates to the internal concerns of the colony, shall be considered *as a law definitive*, unless it may be made by the representatives of the *French part* of St. Domingo, freely and legally chosen, and confirmed by the king.

“Sixthly. As every law ought to be founded on the consent of those who are to be bound by it, the French part of St. Domingo shall be allowed to propose regulations concerning commercial arrangements, and the system of mutual connexion (*rappports commerciaux, et autres rappports communs*), and the decrees which the national assembly shall make in all such cases, *shall not be enforced in the colony, until the general assembly shall have consented thereto.*

“Eighthly. Provided also, that every legislative act of the general assembly executed provisionally, in cases of urgent necessity, shall be transmitted forthwith for the royal sanction. And if the king shall refuse his consent to any such act, its execution shall be suspended as soon as the king’s refusal be legally notified to the general assembly.

“Ninthly. A new general assembly shall be chosen every two years, and none of the members who have served in the former assembly shall be eligible in the new one.

“Tenthly. The general assembly decree that the preceding articles, as forming part of the constitution of the French colony in St. Domingo, shall be immediately transmitted to France for the acceptance of the national assembly and the king. They shall likewise be transmitted to all the parishes and districts of the colony, and be notified to the governor-general.”

to dissolve them. He instantly complied, and charged the general assembly with a design of overturning the peace of the colony, by projects of independency contrary to the wish of the colonists. He accused them with having been instigators of the mutiny of the crew of one of the ships of war, and pronouncing them traitors to their king and country, he declared that he should take the most prompt and effective measures, for bringing them to punishment.

An order was then issued to arrest the committee of the western provincial assembly. Colonel Mauduit, with a military force, failed in effecting this unwise design; the members hearing of his approach, collected about 400 of the national guard for their defence, and M. Mauduit retreated after a skirmish.

The general assembly immediately summoned the people to support and protect their representatives. The northern provincial assembly adhered to the governor-general, and sent him all the troops stationed in that quarter, together with an additional force of about 200 mulattoes. The western assembly collected a much greater force, and a sanguinary civil war seemed inevitable.

The general assembly of the island determined on an extraordinary, yet loyal though hazardous alternative. They resolved to proceed on a voyage to France, in order to appeal personally to the national assembly. About 100 members embarked on board the royal frigate *Leopard*: a ship, the crew of which had declared themselves in their interest. They sailed on the 8th of August, with the warmest acclamations of the populace, in admiration of so extraordinary an act of devotion to their country.

It was some time after the departure of the members of the general assembly, that the first mulatto revolt occurred. It was headed by Ogé, a young man about thirty years of age, and a native of the northern part of St. Domingo. He is said to have been a protégé of La Fayette and Robespierre. He had been educated in France at the expense of his mother, a woman of property living near Cape François. Having associated with the *Amis des Noirs*, he became enthusiastic in demanding equality of rights and privileges for his coloured fellow subjects. Stimulated by the *Amis des Noirs*, and by the revolutionary leaders, he left France for Hayti, in order to animate the men of colour to take up arms and to demand for them equal civil liberties and rights. To give him the *prestige* of military authority, the society purchased for him the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the military service of some German state. To conceal his object, he made a circuitous voyage by North America; but his purpose was discovered before he left France. The governor-general of St. Domingo was instructed to arrest him on his arrival, but he managed to land secretly, and remained unknown, until the expiration of several weeks, when he wrote to the governor, in the name of all the mulattoes, of which he called himself the protector, demanding the immediate execution of all the statutes of the *Code Noir*, and, that in all times to come there should be no distinction, as to rights and privileges, between the whites and the other inhabitants of St. Domingo. He even declared boldly

that unless the governor-general acceded to his propositions, he should assert them by armed force. Ogé miscalculated the support and aid to be received in Hayti, for the carrying his threat, or purpose, into effect. His brothers were animated by the spirit of revolt, and some others joined him, but Ogé never could collect at any one time, more than from 200 to 300 allies. He encamped with them near the Grand Rivière, and his brothers and another leader, named Chevane, are charged with having committed many excesses, and of murdering the unoffending inhabitants with the most horrible cruelty. Whole families were massacred, from the circumstance of a father, or even a brother, refusing to take up arms, to favour Ogé.

Troops, and the Cape militia, were despatched by the governor to suppress numbers so despicable. A skirmish ensued; many of the revolters fell, and some were taken prisoners. Ogé escaped, with Chevane, into the Spanish territory, where they were demanded, and received, by the new governor, M. Blanchelande. In March, 1791, they were tried and condemned: Ogé and Chevane to be broken on the wheel, and his brother and some of his followers, to be hanged. The intrepidity of Chevane never forsook him; he met his fate with the firmest courage. Ogé begged, in the most abject manner, that mercy might be extended to him. A respite was granted to him, in consideration of a promise, to make important discoveries, if his life were spared. Before commissioners appointed for that purpose, he made a detailed confession of the plan which the coloured people had devised to excite the slave population to rebellion.

In breach of all faith and honour, after this despicable, and deluded, man had made disclosures which informed the governor of the whole of their designs, the knowledge of which might have frustrated their progress, Ogé was, without delay, executed.

This base act of treachery on the part of the government, and its subsequent proceedings, excited the greatest hatred between the whites and the people of colour, the latter soon collected in large bodies. In the western and southern districts they formed encampments, with a determination to resist the decrees of the governor. At Jeremie, and at Aux Cayes, a most formidable body had assembled, well armed and accoutred. Mauduit, who commanded the government troops, was in secret conference with their leaders, and consulted personally with them, advising them not to desist from their purpose. By this treachery he discovered all their plans. The mulattoes were for the time dispersed.

The members of the colonial assembly, who had gone to France, having appeared at the bar of the national assembly, were dismissed with considerable disappointment and chagrin. The report of the committee appointed to examine their claims, concludes by stating, "That all the pretended decrees and acts of the said colonial assembly should be reversed and pronounced utterly null and

of no effect ; that the said assembly should be declared dissolved, and its members rendered ineligible and incapable of being delegated in future to the colonial assembly of St. Domingo ; that testimonies of approbation should be transmitted to the northern provincial assembly, to Colonel Mauduit and the regiment of Port-au-Prince, for resisting the proceedings at St. Marc's ; that the king should be requested to give orders for the forming a new colonial assembly on the principles of the national decree of the 8th of March, 1790, and instructions of the 28th of the same month ; finally, that the *ci-devant* members, then in France, should continue in a state of arrest, until the national assembly might find time to signify its further pleasure concerning them."

Nothing could exceed the disappointment which this decree excited throughout the colony, and the indignation of the people was general. To call another general colonial assembly was agreed to be impossible ; the people in many districts absolutely refused to return other representatives, declaring those who were under arrest in France to be the only legitimate members.

The national guards refused all further adherence to the cause in which they had enlisted. They were soon joined in the revolt by the regiment of which Colonel Mauduit was the commander. They tore the white cockade from their hats, and refused to obey him. He offered to restore the national colours, and appealed to them for protection against insult, which they promised him. On refusing to *beg pardon of the national guards on his knees*, he was, notwithstanding their pledge of protection, on the day appointed for restoring the colours, run through the body by the bayonets of his own regiment. The other regular troops present at this dastardly act, attempted to revenge themselves on the perpetrators, but were restrained in their intention : the revolted regiment, however, was compelled to lay down their arms, and were sent off prisoners to France.

When information of the execution of Ogé reached Paris, it excited great sensation on the part of the advocates of the people of colour, and of the society of *Amis des Noirs*. The Abbé Gregoire, with extraordinary eloquence, demanded the benefit which the instructions of March, 1790, gave to them. Robespierre, in an address of great eloquence, said, "Perish the colonies rather than sacrifice one *iota* of our principles ;"—and the national assembly confirmed the decree of the 15th of May, 1791, which enacted, "That the people of colour resident in the French colonies should be allowed the privileges of French citizens, and, among others, those of having votes in the choice of representatives, and of being eligible to seats both in the parochial and colonial assemblies."

This decree, on being received in the colony, excited the greatest indignation among the white people.

The governor, M. Blanchelande, had assured the provincial assembly of the north, "That he would suspend the execution of this obnoxious decree, whenever it should come to him properly authenticated ;" the coloured people, in

consequence, assembled in large bodies throughout the whole island, with the determination to enforce by arms the concession of the privileges to which, under the decree of the national assembly, they were entitled.

The first serious symptoms of revolt, it will now be observed, was not made by the slave population, but from the first interference of the national assembly of France, and afterwards by the supporters and advocates of the people of colour, and the society of *Amis des Noirs*.

It has astonished those who knew not the fact, that during the disturbances which had prevailed, the slave population should have remained passive observers of the contest. It may be at the same time remarked that the landed proprietors and planters were become wealthy; their extensive plantations with a rich and productive soil, and with a favourable climate, were in a high state of cultivation. Their manners and habits became depraved in about the same ratio as they advanced in prosperity. They are asserted to have been vain, haughty, and voluptuous, and, unlike their Spanish neighbours, they inflicted excessive punishments, in exacting labour from their slaves. Their sensualities, had also, it is affirmed, excited very general disgust.

Society had, in fact, become so depraved, that vice was gloried in. When the slaves were at length instigated to join in the revolt, it was not surprising that the untaught slave, should be led by pernicious example to indulge in iniquitous and immoral practices, and in the ungovernable propensities of his master. It was, in fact, the immorality of the master which prepared the slave for the extraordinary cruelties, which they afterwards inflicted in the spirit of revenge,—when instigated by the mulattoes, for enforcing their claims under the decree of the 15th of May, 1791.*

It has been generally asserted by the white population, that if the national assembly of France had not interfered with the system of governing the colony, which had been administered before the revolution, the slave population would have ever remained peaceable observers of events,—regardless of a bondage under which they had no physical wants, except their daily labour, to which they had always quietly submitted.

* In his "History of St. Domingo," Rainsford, who was a sojourner in the colony under circumstances of great danger, says of the planters: "Flushed with opulence and dissipation, the majority of the planters in St. Domingo had arrived at a state of sentiment the most vitiated, and manners equally depraved; while, injured by an example so contagious, the slaves had become more dissolute than those of any British island. If the master was proud, voluptuous, and crafty, the slave was equally vicious, and often riotous; the punishment of one was but the consequent of his own excesses, but that of the other was often cruel and unnatural. The proprietor would bear no rival in his parish, and would not bend even to the ordinances of justice. The creole slaves looked upon the newly-imported Africans with scorn, and sustained in turn that of the mulattoes, whose complexion was browner, while all were kept at a distance from an intercourse with the whites; nor did the boundaries of sex, it is painful to observe, keep their wonted distinction from the stern impulses which affect men. The European ladies too often participated in the austerity and arrogance of their male kindred, while the jet black beauty among slaves, though scarcely a native of the island, refused all commerce with those who could not boast the same distinction with herself."

The rising of the slaves in the revolution, it was contended, did not proceed from the oppression exercised by their proprietors;—but at the instigation of those who were striving for power in Hayti.

The whites claimed exclusive privileges. The people of colour naturally demanded the enjoyment of those social rights which the Abbé Gregoire and his colleagues in France advocated the concession of by the national assembly. There is much truth in these assertions; but we consider that it is chiefly to the imbecility and arrogance of the white planters that we must attribute the atrocities of the revolution in Hayti.

The first determined act of rebellion on the part of the slave population occurred near the Cape, in August, 1791, on the plantation of the Count de Noé. The chief leaders massacred the white inhabitants; the slaves demolished the sugar works and fired the dwellings.

They were soon aided by the slaves on other neighbouring estates; on which similar massacres were perpetrated. The whites were then indiscriminately slaughtered: except where some of the women were reserved for the brutal lusts of the most sanguinary and horrible ruffians. Some of the most delicate and beautiful of the female sex were brought forth to witness the butchery of their parents and relations; and they were afterwards subjected to the vile embraces of the executioner. Even girls of twelve and fourteen years were made the victims of lust and revenge. Such massacre and rapine, as those committed on the commencement of the rebellion in the north of Hayti, are almost unequalled in the annals of atrocity.

The resistance made by the militia and soldiers was not expected to suppress the revolutionists. It was a mere effort to enable the inhabitants of the city of Cape Haitian to defend themselves from destruction. The citizens and the national guards, with the seamen from the ships, were mustered and armed, in order to repel the rebels should they attempt to take the city.

There was a numerous force of free mulattoes in the city, whom the lower order of whites suspected of being in some way concerned in the revolt. These mulattoes were enrolled in the militia. In the northern districts, the white inhabitants assembled, and established two military posts at Grand Rivière and at Dondon. But the coloured people had greatly increased their forces by the desertion of the slaves from many estates,—and by a large accession of mulattoes. They attacked and captured the above two positions occupied by the whites; who were completely routed. The extensive northern plain, with all its surrounding mountains, abounding with every production for their sustenance, was soon after in possession of the revolutionists.

Nearly all white persons were subjected to horrible tortures: negroes and mulattoes seemed to rival each other in their atrocities.

It was apprehended that the mulattoes, who had joined the whites in the city, and had marched with them to the plains, would desert and join the revolters;

but the governor, before they were enrolled demanded, and received their wives and children, as hostages for their fidelity.

In this northern insurrection, it was estimated that more than 2000 of the white inhabitants, of all ages, were massacred. The demolition of the works and buildings of many plantations, and the total ruin of families were attendant calamities. The insurgents, meantime, being ignorant of the effects of artillery were often mown down in masses. Upwards, it is asserted, of 10,000 of them fell in the field, besides a very large number who were executed.

Whilst these atrocities were perpetrated in the northern district, the western district was menaced by a coloured force, which had mustered at Mirebalais, in order to capture Port-au-Prince and the whole plain of Cul de Sac. These insurgents, not exceeding 700 or 800, did not succeed further than burning the coffee plantations amid the mountains, and injuring the estates in the valleys. Some of the leading mulattoes finding it impossible to gain over the slaves, *en masse*, to their cause, proposed an adjustment. A planter, who had been highly esteemed by the people of colour, as well as by the negroes, through the whole Plain of Cul de Sac, interposed, and a treaty, called the *Concordat*, was concluded on the 11th of September, between the people of colour and the white inhabitants of Port-au-Prince.

This treaty stipulated an amnesty for past acts and differences, and the full recognition of the decree of the national assembly of the 15th of May. It was subsequently ratified by the general assembly of the colony; and, a proclamation was issued, in which it was held out that further concessions were contemplated for the purpose of cementing a good understanding between both classes. Mulattoes were voted eligible to hold commissions in the militia companies formed of persons of their own colour; and, some other privileges of minor consideration were conceded to them.

Immediately after the ratification of the *Concordat*, by the colonial assembly, had been announced, intelligence was received that the decree of the 15th of May of the national assembly in France, was, by that same assembly, repealed by a very large majority. This political and erroneous blunder was followed by the information, that the national assembly had determined on sending out commissioners to enforce the decree of the 24th of September, 1791; which annulled the decree of the 15th of May. It was naturally to be expected that the coloured people in the western and southern districts, were almost in immediate revolt against the government. In a few days they invested Port-au-Prince; but it had been strengthened by an additional force from France; and the insurgents were ultimately repelled with considerable loss; but not until a very large part of the city was burned down, or otherwise injured by the insurgents.

The slaves joined the mulattoes on the Plain of Cul de Sac. Plunder, freedom, and the gratification of sensuality, were the allurements held out to the slaves,

by the free coloured insurgents. Sanguinary actions were fought, attended with horrible cruelties to the prisoners taken on both sides.

The commissioners of the national assembly arrived in September from France. They proclaimed a general amnesty and pardon to all who should desist from acts of insubordination, and who would subscribe to the new constitution. This proposition was disapproved by the colonial assembly and by all parties. The commissioners then left the island in which they found themselves powerless and disrespected.

The society of *Amis des Noirs*, had soon after attained considerable influence in the national assembly; in which there appeared an union in favour of the mulattoes, and also of the slave population. This national assembly passed another decree on the 4th of April, 1792, which abrogated that of the 24th of September, 1791. This constituted the first advance towards emancipating the slaves, although it does not openly declare the same.*

The carrying of this decree into effect was intrusted to three commissioners, who, with a force of 8000 men, arrived in Hayti on the 13th of September following. They immediately dissolved the colonial assembly, and sent the governor Blanchelande, to France; where he was tried and guillotined. M. Desparbes, his successor, having disagreed with the commissioners, was suspended, and sent to France, where he was, it is said, also guillotined.

It was asserted by the whole inhabitants, that the commissioners of the national assembly, while professing to the white inhabitants, their earnest solicitude for the preservation of peace, and the prosperity of the colony, were secretly intriguing with the mulattoes; and they in the end, openly declared that the latter, with the free negroes, should enjoy their civil privileges, and the protection of the 8000 national guards which had arrived from France.

* By the decree of 1792, "The national assembly acknowledges and declares that the people of colour and free negroes in the colonies, ought to enjoy an equality of political rights with the whites; in consequence of which it decrees as follows:—

"Article 1. Immediately after the publication of the present decree, the inhabitants of each of the French colonies in the windward and leeward islands, shall proceed to the re-election of colonial and parochial assemblies in the same month.

"2. The people of colour and free negroes shall be admitted to vote in all the primary and electoral assemblies, and shall be eligible to the legislature and all places of trust, provided they possess the qualifications prescribed.

"3. Three civil commissioners shall be named for the colony of St. Domingo, and four for the Islands of Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, and Tobago, to see this decree enforced.

"7. The national assembly authorises the civil commissioners, to call forth the public force whenever they may think it necessary, either for their own protection, or for the execution of such orders as they may issue by virtue of the preceding articles.

"8. The executive power is directed to send a sufficient force to the colonies, to be composed chiefly of national guards.

"9. The colonial assemblies immediately after their formation shall signify, in the name of each colony respectively, their sentiments respecting that constitution, those laws, and the administration of them.

"10. The colonial assemblies are authorised to send home delegates, for the purposes mentioned in the preceding article.

"11. Former decrees, respecting the colonies, shall be in force in every thing not contrary to the present decree."

A new governor, M. Galbaud, arrived in May, 1793, to take the command, and to place the island in a state of defence, in case the British might invade it: war having been declared between the two powers. The national assembly of France soon after sent out commissioners with fresh instructions, and suspended the new governor. They decreed that any person holding property in the colonies should be ineligible to fill any office of trust in the colony in which his estate was situated.

Galbaud, aided by his brother, armed a force composed of militia, seamen from the ships in the harbour of Cape Haytien, and a great number of volunteers, and marched without delay against the commissioners, who were with the regular troops. A bloody conflict ensued, and the battle was continued with obstinate bravery, until the sailors, who composed the greatest strength of Galbaud's force, became disorderly. He was consequently obliged to retreat.

Various skirmishes followed. Galbaud's brother fell into the hands of the commissioners, and the son of one of the commissioners was captured by Galbaud. The commissioners finding that their troops, were rapidly deserting, and that Galbaud's forces were resolute, and fought with unexampled bravery, they called to their aid the revolted slaves, offering them their freedom, and promising them the pillage of the city of Cape Haytien. Some of the rebel chiefs rejected this dishonorable proposition, but Macaya, a negro of brutal disposition, with an insatiable thirst for the blood of the whites, accepted the proposal of the commissioners, and with 3000 or 4000 of the negroes joined the commissioners. The city was attacked, and men, women, and children, were, without distinction, slaughtered. The mulattoes had now acquired the utmost power of gratifying their revenge; they even sacrificed their own white parents, and afterwards subjected their bodies to every species of insult and indignity. So atrocious were the excesses, that the commissioners of the national assembly repaired to the ships, from which they were spectators of the effects of their own crimes, and beheld an opulent city consumed by the flames, and the inhabitants subjected to the most atrocious massacre.

When the insurgents first entered the city, every man, woman, and child were bayoneted or cut down; except the young females, who were in most cases spared, for the gratification of the lust of those into whose hands they fell.

After these first atrocities, emigrations commenced from the colony to the United States, to the neighbouring islands, and of some of the opulent planters to England, under the impression that the British government would be disposed to turn its attention to their cause. The war between France and England having commenced, some regard was paid to their solicitations, and the government of England, sent directions to the governor of Jamaica to afford those inhabitants of St. Domingo, who were desirous to place themselves under British protection, every possible support, and to send, without delay, a competent force, to take possession of such places as the people might be disposed to surrender to them.

The intentions of the British government being known, by the means of secret agents, the commissioners of the national assembly "proclaimed the abolition of every species of slavery, declaring that the negroes were thenceforth to be considered as free citizens."

No sooner had the abolition of slavery been promulgated, than the slaves rose simultaneously in the different parishes; and, forming bands, they first took possession of the mountains, in order to secure themselves within the numerous fastnesses. They then sallied forth into the plains, and set fire to the cane-fields: demolishing every habitation within their range, and murdering the white inhabitants. In one part of Hayti, the insurgents amounted to nearly 100,000, without any resolute leader. In the north district they amounted at first to from about 20,000 to 25,000, but their number was soon increased to 40,000 of the most desperate negroes.

The British force, under Colonel Whitelocke, appeared at Jeremie on the 19th of September, 1793; it consisted of about 870 rank and file. This place was given up to the British by stipulation; it was taken possession of the next day; and all the inhabitants took the oath of allegiance to the King of England. Cape St. Nicolas next followed; but the inhabitants displayed some hostility, and most of them joined the republican standard. Tiburon was next attempted, but from the faithlessness of the planters, the British troops were obliged to retreat with some loss. Further operations were suspended until a force from England arrived in February following: consisting of a British squadron, with troops, which were immediately landed, commanded by Major Spencer. He gallantly attacked the enemy, and drove them back with considerable loss. The bight of Leogane was commanded by the British squadron, and skirmishes took place in the vicinity of Leogane, as well as at Tiburon, and in the neighbourhood of Cape Nicolas Mole. In some instances the British were successful; in others the enemy obtained advantages.

Andrew Rigaud, a man of colour, made his first appearance at this period at the head of the revolted slaves. He previously had the command at Aux Cayes, and, with about 2000 of the insurgents, besieged Tiburon; but the fort was manned by some British soldiers, who, with the people, sallied forth, attacked the besiegers in the field, and routed them with great slaughter.

On the 19th of May, the British force, long expected, arrived under the command of General Whyte. On the 30th, the ships of war, consisting of four ships of the line, three or four frigates, and several smaller vessels, anchored off Port-au-Prince. The land forces amounted to only about 1500 men, capable of doing duty. On the following morning, a summons to surrender the city was sent, to which no attention was paid. The commissioners were in the city with a considerable force. Fort Bizotton, which is situate on an eminence to the southward of the city, commands the Leogane road, and the southern entrance in the harbour. The land-side was attacked by a body of troops under Major Spencer,

a simultaneous attack was made on the sea-side by two of the ships of war. Captain Daniel, of the forty-first regiment, with about seventy or eighty men, during a thunder-storm, about eight o'clock, entered the breach and carried the fort. He was severely wounded, and some of his men and officers were killed. The city surrendered, the commissioners evacuated it on the 4th of June, and the British troops entered and took possession of it, and the shipping in the harbour.

The taking of Port-au-Prince was followed by sickness, which raged amongst the British troops to such an extent, that it was found necessary, for the preservation of the post, to erect additional lines of defence against the insurgents. The British troops were in consequence subjected to incessant toil in the sun, and during the night exposed to pestilential vapour fires. The commissioners carried about 200 mule-loads, or nearly all the riches of the city, and they were accompanied by about 2000 of the inhabitants. These commissioners had lost their power.

The value of the property taken at Port-au-Prince, was estimated by a writer of some authority as follows :—

“ In the harbour were found two-and-twenty top-sail vessels, fully laden with sugar, indigo, and coffee, of which thirteen were from 300 tons to 500 tons' burden, and the remaining nine from 150 tons to 300 tons, besides 7000 tons of shipping in ballast; the value of all which, at a moderate computation, could not be far short of 400,000*l.* sterling. One hundred and thirty-one pieces of cannon, regularly mounted in batteries, were on the lines.”

A reinforcement arrived soon after, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Lennox, consisting of about 600 men. On their passage from the windward islands to Jamaica sickness broke out, and more than 100 died on board, and 150 were left at Port-Royal in a hopeless state of disease.

General Whyte, the commander-in-chief in Hayti, was attacked by malignant fever; and his health was so much impaired that he was compelled to return to England in September, 1794: the command devolved on Brigadier-General Horneck.

General Williamson arrived in May, 1799. In the meantime the mulatto Rigaud, commanding a strong force, attacked and captured Leogane, which was defended by colonial troops. He murdered all the French planters who fell into his power, and then marched towards Port-au-Prince. He attacked Fort Bizoton which commanded his advance, and was repulsed with great loss, and with 3000 men retreated to Aux Cayes. With this force, and four small armed vessels, on the 25th of December, he commenced the attack. The fort, which consisted of no more than 450 men, defended it gallantly; and after the loss of two-thirds of their number, the remainder sallied forth, to attack Tiburon, cut their way through the insurgents, and succeeded in retreating to Irois.

At St. Marc, Colonel Brisbane, who commanded there, defeated the insurgents in several skirmishes on the plains of Artibonite; but, in his absence,

the mulatto inhabitants of St. Marc, who solemnly had pledged themselves to observe the strictest neutrality, violated their pledge, and murdered all who were opposed to the French republic. The garrison defended themselves in the fort until they were relieved by a vessel of war from Cape Nicolas Mole. The white inhabitants of St. Marc, conspired to destroy Colonel Brisbane and his force, but he discovered and defeated their plot.

At Port-au-Prince, a conspiracy was also discovered, the purport of which was, to massacre the garrison and all the English, by those very French inhabitants, who hailed with acclamations the arrival of the British force before the city. The conspirators were seized, and about twenty, amongst whom were several French officers of rank, were tried by a court-martial. Of these conspirators fifteen were shot on the 18th of February, 1795, and the remainder were sent off the island.

General Williamson, to augment his force, formed several corps of negroes, whom he purchased of the French planters, and placed them under the command of officers of the line. There was great absence of sound forecast and judgment in this act. They were both useless and disobedient. General Williamson was succeeded by General Forbes, who acted entirely on the defensive.

In 1795, the war between France and Spain terminated; and the despicable Godoy, Prince of Peace, ceded the Spanish part of the island, and its Spanish subjects, to their utter dismay, to the French republic in perpetuity.

Brigadier-general Howe arrived in the end of 1795, with about 7000 men, at Cape Nicolas Mole. This additional force did not enable the British troops to attempt much. Sickness and privations overwhelmed them. The insurgents meantime were increasing in numbers, and acquired vigour and activity.

In 1797, General Simcoe landed in Hayti, to take the command. About the same time the negro Toussaint l'Ouverture was invested by the republican government of France with the high rank of general-in-chief of the armies of St. Domingo. The negro general proved a tactician of no ordinary genius and courage. Discreet and intelligent, and well acquainted with the strength of the British force, and of the experience of their commanders, Toussaint remained apparently passive, further than appearing before Mirebalais with a more powerful force than had previously been collected. The British troops not being sufficient to oppose his progress, retreated through the plains of Cul de Sac to Port-au-Prince, abandoning the whole of the country through which they retreated, and from which, from its fertility, the enemy were enabled to obtain abundance of provisions. By this retreat, all communication with the Spanish part of the island was cut off.

To the southward, however, the negroes were driven from every post which they had occupied, and Rigaud, commanding the mulatto force, was defeated at Irois. Toussaint attacked St. Marc's, but retreated with considerable loss.

The British power in the island, however, declined, and no attempt was afterwards made to attack the insurgents. During these irregular skirmishes, General Simcoe left Hayti, and the command devolved on Major-general Whyte. Bri-

gadier-general Maitland succeeded in April, 1798, under circumstances of discomfiture, and distress. He terminated this most ill-judged and disastrous contest by a truce, and negotiations with Toussaint. The whole of the British conquest, and the colonial black troops, for whom an enormous sum of money was paid to the very persons who afterwards took arms against them, were ceded to the black general, Toussaint, in the name of the French republic, and thus ended, with the exception of the great amount which its expense has bequeathed to British national taxation, one of those expeditions which tarnish British wisdom.

Toussaint was born about the year 1745, on the plantation of the Count de Noé, not far from Cape François. Of his early life, his steady patience, his mildness to brute animals, and his inviolable fidelity and love to one female, whom he had chosen as his wife, were the most remarkable characteristics. The regularity of his life attracted the notice, and gained the confidence of M. Bayou de Libertas, manager of the plantation on which Toussaint was born. Through the kindness of this manager, or, as others affirm, by his own unaided application, he learned to read and write, and became a proficient in common arithmetic. These acquirements were scarcely ever attained by a slave in Hayti. M. Bayou brought him from field labour, and made him his postillion; a place in which he could gain some money, and find leisure to cultivate his mind. The extent of his reading in a few years was, with his ideas, expanded, and his powers of reasoning became remarkable. He was also further promoted by M. Bayou.

When the insurrection of 1791 broke out, Toussaint was solicited to act in concert with several of the leaders who were his friends. It is possible that gratitude to his benefactor, M. Bayou, prevented him from yielding to their solicitations. That he did not is certain. Among the whites who remained latest in St. Domingo was M. Bayou. His flight at last would have been impracticable, had not Toussaint managed it with some hazard to himself. He did more: he sent with him a quantity of colonial produce, sufficient for the supply of his future wants; and when M. Bayou settled at Baltimore, Toussaint seized upon every opportunity to make remittances.

After the departure of M. Bayou, there was nothing to prevent Toussaint from fighting under the standard of revolt, and he joined Biassou, one of the negro chiefs, as his second in command. It was not long before Biassou was degraded from an authority which he had atrociously abused, and Toussaint was elected chief. The death or degradation of the other chiefs, and the superior abilities of Toussaint, soon raised him to the rank of principal commander of the negro army.

On the evacuation of Hayti by the British forces, most of the planters, who had been faithful to their engagements, departed at the same time, taking with them such moveable property as they were enabled to carry to Jamaica, Cuba, and the United States. Toussaint l'Ouverture was then left in full possession of the island, and in the undisputed chief command. Peace succeeded.

CHAPTER IV.

REIGN OF TOUSSAINT.

TOUSSAINT was a most remarkable man. In features and colour he was a pure negro. His first great policy was directed to the culture of the soil, in which he made rapid and even astonishing progress. He adopted the maxim, that "agriculture is the main spring, the master sinew of every great state, the perennial fountain of wealth." In this policy he greatly resembled Francia the Dictator of Paraguay. The planters who had joined his standard were reinvested with their estates; and, without any property in their slaves, they were encouraged to cultivate their lands. He had heard, and believed "that rural or agricultural labours are equally conducive to health and strength of body and mind; that the culture of the earth constitutes the most natural and innocent employment of man; that it fills houses with plenty and hearts with gladness." But after six years' relaxation from the toils of the field, and of predatory warfare, those who had been accustomed to slavery, were not disposed to return to their original occupations, and he knew that the negro population would not readily be induced to labour, and that coercion, mild, if possible, would be necessary to enforce it. He directed that each person, not in any military capacity, should labour in the cultivation of the lands held not only by the government, but by such of the planters as had been repossessed in their estates.

The planters were compelled to employ them as servants; and the latter were ordered to choose the employers under whom they were to work, and on no consideration were they allowed to leave the estates on which they agreed to labour, unless their services were demanded in the army. He fixed wages for the labourers, to be computed equal to one-third of the value of the crops; other arrangements were made suitable to the views and mutual accommodation of parties. This absolute policy, enforced immediately after the cessation of civil war, proved both the influence held by Toussaint over them, and his conviction that the advancement of agriculture, required him at once to adopt rigid measures.

He promulgated an edict for enforcing the culture of the soil, which appeared in 1800, and it subsequently formed a leading part of the *Code Hatte*, or *Code Henry*, of Christophe. Mr. Franklin observes, that

"It embraced every object that could possibly be conceived likely to promote his great aim; and whilst its enactments might have the appearance of severity, unpalatable to the people just emerged from slavery, so great was his influence, that he felt no alarm for the consequences of enforcing them; and those who had the temerity to infringe them were visited with the whole weight of the penalties.

"This law apportions the hours of labour for the cultivator, which by the 22nd ar-

ticle appears in every point the same as that which is exacted from the slave in the British islands, that is to say, it commences at the break of day and concludes at night, allowing an interval of an hour for breakfast, and another of two hours at noon. It provides against any innovations, and precludes the labourer or the proprietor from the chance of imposing on each other. I see nothing ambiguous in it, it is clear in the letter, and the spirit of it cannot be erroneously interpreted. From the 113th to the 120th article inclusive, it appears beyond the possibility of contradiction, that Toussaint was conscious that nothing could be done in the work of the soil without such forcible regulations as would command the most strict attention to tillage.

“It is quite clear that the labour which this law exacted each day from the cultivator was not oppressive, nor have I been able to discover that the slaves in the British colonial possessions ever complained of the labour to which they were subjected, as having been too severe; and it is undeniable that Toussaint, under the very law which has been cited, compelled the same portion to be done, and that for the better insuring its performance, military guards were placed to superintend the labourers and to seize those who endeavoured to evade their duty. That they could not have been injured by labour, and that they did not murmur at its quantum is tolerably clear, for it is said by a writer of some repute, that ‘the plantation negroes were in general contented, healthy, and happy; and that this was their condition I am assured by the concurring testimony of men who had witnessed their state at that period.

“There were no civil authorities by which the indolent or refractory cultivator was to be tried for his offences; there was no distinction between the vagrant who was detected in idleness and the soldier who fled from his post, they were both amenable to the military power, were sentenced by a court-martial, and awarded an equal punishment.

“Possessed of no mean capacity and judgment, he knew the character and the dispositions of his negro brethren, and so nicely did he discern and reward industry, and discriminate between the active and meritorious, and the indolent and the worthless, that, although in some cases his judgment was harsh, it was admitted to be just.”

His plans were prepared with intelligence and skill, and the consequent rapid progress of agricultural improvement has astonished his greatest enemies.

Those who had emigrated during the revolution, were encouraged to return, by his assurance that he would protect, and reinstate them in their lands. Many returned and brought with them the slaves who had accompanied them in their flight; though the latter became free on landing. He endeavoured to improve the domestic morals, and to repress sensuality and voluptuousness, by recommending and encouraging marriage. Polygamy, which prevailed, checked the increase of population; and it soon became apparent that an increase of births resulted from his regulations.

The character of Toussaint is extolled as almost faultless by most writers, even by Bryant Edwards. Mr. Franklin, however, in his work on Hayti, says,—

“Whatever may be the prevailing opinion, he has left indelible marks behind him which prove that he was revengeful and sanguinary in the field: and the atrocities and cruelties which he exercised over those mulattoes who fell into his hands, are demonstrative of no little ferocity of disposition. It has been argued in exculpation, that surrounded as he was with people of that class who adhered to his cause, and who, he expected, might revolt and join the standard of his enemies, it was a matter of absolute expediency, that he should resort to the severest measures to deter them from deserting his standard, or from engaging in any enterprise inimical to his cause. But in all his actions he seemed to be actuated by a determination to exact the most rigid acquiescence in his will and a complete acknowledgment of his supreme power, and to establish which, true it is, he had at times recourse to very harsh and cruel measures.”

Rainsford, a British officer, who knew Toussaint personally, says, that he had not those unrelenting feelings which have been ascribed to him. Rainsford was taken prisoner, and afterwards set at liberty by Toussaint; of his character and of his generalship in the field, he says,—

“ Thus proceeded this illustrious man, like the simple acorn, first promiscuously scattered by the winds, in its slow but beauteous progress to the gigantic oak, spreading its foliage with august grandeur above the minor growth of the forest, defending the humble shrub, and braving the fury of the contending elements. When the cloud, charged with electric fluid, becomes too ponderous, it selects not the brooding murderer on the barren heath, but bursts perhaps indiscriminately in wasteful vengeance over the innocent flocks reposing in verdant fields. He was, without doubt, a man possessed of many virtues, and performed many very good and very generous acts, and, what must be admitted to have redounded greatly to his reputation, he was always grateful, and never left an obligation unrequited. To those planters whom he induced to return to the island, and whom he restored to their properties, he was generous, kind, and indulgent; and of the confidence which they placed in his assurances, they had never cause to repent. Taking him altogether, he was undoubtedly a most extraordinary character, and whatever might have been the extent of his vices, they were certainly counter-balanced and atoned for by many virtues.”

An anonymous writer says, that

“ The excellences of his character unfolded themselves more and more, as opportunities were afforded for their development. The same humanity and benevolence which had adorned his humble life, continued to distinguish him in his elevation. He never imitated the conduct of other leaders, in flattering the multitude, encouraging them in crimes, or urging them to revenge and slaughter; on the contrary, mercy, industry, and order were always inculcated by his counsels, recommended by his example, and enforced by his authority. The fertility of his inventions, the correctness of his judgments, the celerity of his movements, the extent of his labours in the combined and multifarious business of war and government astonished both friends and foes. If there was one trait in his character more conspicuous than the rest, *it was his unsullied integrity*. That he never broke his word, was a proverbial expression common in the mouths of the white inhabitants of the island, and of the English officers, who were employed in hostilities against him.”

On peace being restored, Toussaint restored public worship according to the forms which existed prior to the revolution, and he extended full liberty to other forms of religious worship, allowing Methodists, who had arrived from the United States, protection, and the privilege of preaching.

He reduced his military establishment at the peace. The discipline of his troops was admired even by British officers.

Hayti, in most parts, was intersected with underwood and difficult mountain passes, and irregular bodies, detached in parties, were generally more effective in their operations than large masses of troops. Toussaint sought to drill his troops in such evolutions as would enable him effectually to meet the exigencies with which he might have to contend. It is said of his troops, that

“ At a whistle a whole brigade would run 300 or 400 yards, then separating, throw themselves flat on the ground, changing to their backs or sides, keeping up a strong fire the whole of the time till they were recalled; then they would form again in an instant with their wonted regularity. This single manœuvre used to be executed with such facility and precision as totally to prevent cavalry from charging them in bushy and hilly countries.”

His military forces during peace consisted of about thirty thousand foot and two thousand cavalry, well equipped, and in complete readiness for active service.

In the framing of his constitution and laws, Toussaint was assisted by intelligent Americans and Europeans. No prejudices against the white race influenced him, when their services were useful. He exacted courteous attention from his subjects, to secure the aid of men of learning and ability, without reference to what may have been their country, profession, or religion. Among them were the Abbé Molière and M. Marinit, and several English and Americans. He was liberal and friendly to them all. In the organisation of his municipal governments, and in the arrangements for the different departments of state; in forming regulations for a commercial intercourse with foreign countries, he was assisted by those intelligent and gifted men. Toussaint was convinced, that without foreign trade, his efforts in cultivating the soil would have been to a great degree unprofitable. Without a market for agricultural products, there would have been little stimulus to industry: as in so fertile a country a sufficient quantity of food for consumption required but little exertion. He made a tour through the Spanish part of the island, which inspired confidence in the people; and he was received by them with respect, and often with joy. His achievements, and mild and agreeable manners, rendered him highly popular. The Spanish division of the island though ceded to France by the treaty of 1795, was never thoroughly occupied by the French republican forces. The city of St. Domingo, surrounded with fortifications, held out until the arrival of Toussaint, in 1801, when the whole Spanish division surrendered to his forces.

In 1801 the whole island of Hayti was tranquil under the authority of Toussaint,—and then its prosperity, if undisturbed, appeared secure. The peace of Amiens suggested to Napoleon the recovery of St. Domingo. Instigated by the colonists who had fled to France; and considering that he could only rival the power of England, by the possession of colonies and commerce; urged also by speculators in France, and more so by his ambition, he resolved to subjugate Hayti by force. An expedition, consisting of twenty-six sail of the line, carrying 25,000 men, under the command of his brother-in-law, General Le Clerc, sailed for its conquest. Two of the sons of Toussaint were then in France, attending a course of scientific and legal studies. They were taken from their preceptor by the First Consul, and sent on board the fleet as hostages in the hands of the French general, in the event of any opposition by Toussaint to the landing of the French army.

The fleet arrived in the Bay of Sumana on the 25th of January, 1802. General Le Clerc distributed his force into four divisions. One division, commanded by General Kersevan, was directed to disembark and take possession of the city of St. Domingo; another, under General Boudet, was to invest Port-au-Prince;

a third was to proceed to the south side of Hayti, and land one section at Mansenillo Bay, under General Rochambeau. The main body, under Le Clerc, with his personal staff, intended to disembark at, and capture Cape François.

Toussaint was informed of the expedition leaving France, but knew nothing of its force, or the policy which organised its objects. He considered himself still under the suzerainty of the French republic; and even believed that this force might have been sent principally for assisting him in maintaining the peace of the island.

Le Clerc did not, however, even attempt negotiation with Toussaint. General Rochambeau, who landed near Fort Dauphin, drew up his troops on the beach, and the negroes, who believed that the French landed as friends, flew in crowds to witness the disembarkation, and to welcome their arrival. Rochambeau, without the slightest intimation, charged them at the point of the bayonet; many were slaughtered, and the rest fled with difficulty, leaving the fort in possession of the French. General Christophe, who commanded at Cape François, having immediately heard of the unaccountable and cowardly outrage at Fort Dauphin, soon prepared for defence.

By this wicked blunder, at Fort Dauphin, Le Clerc was prevented from taking Toussaint by surprise. Christophe, suspicious of the French from the first, disposed his forces judiciously: strengthening the weak points of assault, and animated his troops with confidence in their own strength. He acquainted the white inhabitants of the city, that their lives would be held by him as security for the hostile proceedings of the French, and that he would never surrender so long as a single house stood. The whites previously knew of the hostility of the French armament. They were secretly favourable to it; but they were fully sensible that the dreadful denunciation of Christophe would be executed. A deputation of the white inhabitants, headed by the municipal authorities, waited upon the French commander-in-chief, imploring him to refrain from hostilities, as it was the determination of Christophe to massacre them, and destroy the city, if it should be attacked by the French forces. Le Clerc told them that his orders were not to restore slavery, but to secure St. Domingo to the consular government of France.

The proclamation sent out by Bonaparte was to the same effect. The sequel will show that neither the First Consul nor his general ever intended what they stated. Never was more gross dissimulation practised.*

* Bonaparte proclaimed:—"Inhabitants of St. Domingo,—whatever your origin or your colour, you are all French: you are all free, and all equal before God and before the republic.

"France, like St. Domingo, has been a prey to factions, torn by civil commotions and by foreign wars. But all has changed, all nations have embraced the French, and have sworn to them peace and amity; the French people, too, have embraced each other, and have sworn to be all friends and brothers. Come also, embrace the French, and rejoice to see again your friends and brothers of Europe.

"The government sends you Captain-General Le Clerc; he brings with him numerous forces for protecting you against your enemies, and against the enemies of the republic. If it be said

Many accepted the offers, and joined the standard of Le Clerc. He then wrote to General Christophe, "that unless he immediately acceded to the landing of his forces, he will hold him (Christophe) responsible for what may happen."

Christophe, firm, bold, inflexible, and decided, replied, "that he would fearlessly resist the French forces, and that they should not enter Cape Town until it was reduced to ashes." "Nay," says he, "even in the ruins I will renew the combat." Again he says, "How can you hold me responsible for the event? you are not my chief. I know you not; and can therefore take no account of you, till you are acknowledged by Governor Toussaint."

Le Clerc landed his forces near Da Limbe and the Bay of Acul, west of the city. Christophe, knowing that the white inhabitants were wavering and faithless; that many mulattoes, and even negroes, were secretly inclined towards the French, promptly commenced the work of conflagration which he had threatened: and when Le Clerc and Admiral Villaret came within sight of the city, they perceived it in the course of rapid devastation. The French commanders made great efforts to save the town, but they were only able to save a few buildings.

Christophe's threat, to massacre the inhabitants, was not, ever to his credit, put in execution. He carried off many, whom he held as hostages for the conduct of the French; but it is not recorded, even by his enemies, that he treated them with any barbarity, or that he executed any of them. On destroying the town, he retreated with his forces to a strong position, until he was joined by the Governor-General Toussaint.

The latter soon arrived, and personally inspected every position by which it was practicable to make a successful stand against the enemy.

At the same time, on resorting to his seat at Ennery, about thirty miles from the Cape, his two sons were brought to him to try how far affection might enfeeble him, so as to forget his duty. The crafty, plausible tutor Coisson, the affectionate children, the fond father, and the tender mother—all failed; Toussaint was inflexible. A writer of the time, who describes the interview which took place, says:—"The two sons ran to meet their father, and he, with emotions too big for utterance, clasped them silently in his arms. Few, it is to be hoped, are the partakers of our common nature, who, on witnessing the embraces and tears of parental and filial sensibility, could have proceeded, at least without

to you, these forces are destined to ravish from you your liberty, answer, the republic will not suffer it to be taken from us.

"Rally round the captain-general; he brings you peace and plenty. Rally all of you around him. Whoever shall dare to separate himself from the captain-general will be a traitor to his country, and the indignation of the republic will devour him, as the fire devours your dried canes.

"Done at Paris, &c.

"(Signed) The First Consul, BONAPARTE."

powerful relents of heart, to execute the commission, with which Coisnon was charged."

This was the moment which Coisnon thought most favourable to the perpetration of his treacherous design. "The father and the sons," says he, "threw themselves into each other's arms. I saw them shed tears, and wishing to take advantage of a period which I conceived to be favourable, I stopped him at the moment when he stretched out his arms to me."

Coisnon then opened the purport of his mission, imploring Toussaint to reflect upon the consequences that would inevitably result from any hostile measures against the power of Bonaparte. He also held out to him the most attractive promises of the glory that would await him by joining the French standard, and the vengeance that would doubtless accompany any act of hostility. He handed to the negro chief a letter, written by Bonaparte, teeming with kind expressions and admiration of Toussaint. But the latter was not then to be entrapped. The tutor then tried the intercession of his children and the entreaties of his wife. Bonaparte, in his letter to the chief, tries what effect an allusion to the former will have. "We have made known to your children, and to their preceptor," he says, "the sentiments by which we are animated. We send them back to you. Assist with your counsel, your influence, and your talents, the captain-general. What can you desire? The freedom of the blacks? You know that in all the countries we have been in, we have given it to the people who had it not. Do you desire consideration, honours, fortune? It is not after the services you have rendered, the services you can still render, *and with the personal estimation we have for you, that you ought to be more doubtful with respect to your consideration, your fortune, and the honours that await you.*" Toussaint having composed himself, and assumed an appearance of ease and confidence, took the preceptor by the hand; then directing the others to retire, he said with dignity, "Take back my children, since it must be so. I will be faithful to my brethren and to my God."

A truce was agreed upon for a few days, for the purpose of carrying on a correspondence between Le Clerc and Toussaint. Le Clerc anticipated a favourable result, but Toussaint's reply contained no augury of his submission to the will of the chief consul. The truce was ended, and each prepared for active operations. Toussaint and Christophe were proclaimed enemies of the French republic, and all persons were called upon to arrest them as outlaws.

Le Clerc, endeavouring to allure the negroes, held out assurances to their officers of rank and preferment in the French army, and the most solemn promise of freedom. The labourers and cultivators of the soil were becoming weary of war, and determined to remain neutral, so long as their properties were not mo-

lest. Le Clerc had nothing to apprehend from them, but to entrap or defeat the negro chiefs was most difficult, from the rugged defiles and passes of the country. The negro troops had been thoroughly instructed in skirmishing, bush fighting, and other irregular warfare. For such operations they were most admirably trained, disciplined, and equipped. They were quick in firing artillery, and good marksmen. Their movements were effected with rapidity: they flew from one point to another with the greatest celerity. Neither the scorching heat of the sun, nor the pernicious influence of the night air, had any injurious effects upon them, while the French were dying from the effects of both.

With the French the field duties were insupportable.

The French troops, however, in the plains of the north, attacked Plaisance. It surrendered, and the negro commander and his soldiers, consisting of five hundred infantry and cavalry, joined the French standard. Marmalade followed, and Christophe was obliged to retreat, in consequence of the treachery of one of his officers who had surrendered an important position on his line, and joined the French.

Near Port La Paix the French troops, under Humbert, sustained a check; and on the 20th of February the troops under General Debelle were obliged to retire, after having sustained some loss.

General Boudet landed at Port-au-Prince, and proceeded with his division against La Croix des Bouquets, which was occupied by the celebrated Dessalines. On the approach of the French force he set fire to the place, and the next day, by a most difficult yet rapid movement, crossed the mountains, and advanced to Leogane, which place he also set on fire, though defended by a French frigate. Dessalines would appear one day in the plains of the Cul de Sac, acting with determined bravery, and committing dreadful ravages before the French army, on the next, he would descend upon and devastate the plains of Leogane, but never facing the enemy in the open field. Bush fighting, and setting fire to the plantations, to impede the advance of the enemy and destroy their provisions was his usually successful plan of warfare.

La Plume, a negro chief, retreated before Generals Desfourneaux and Hardy from the vicinity of Plaisance, and surrendered, with all his troops, to General Boudet. This was a fatal blow to the negro cause.

On the 24th of February, General Rochambeau attacked Toussaint, who commanded about three thousand men, and had taken up a strong position in the Ravine à Couleuvre. The courage and skill of Toussaint and his troops were admirable: a sanguinary conflict ensued. Toussaint having left eight hundred of his men dead in the field, retreated to the banks of La Petite Rivière. Great military skill was displayed by the respective commanders in this battle. The slaughter was immense, and the loss of the French was estimated as greater

than that of the negroes. After the action Rochambeau could not advance, and Toussaint claimed the victory.

The French generals, by flattering promises, seduced Maurepas, a negro chief who commanded the district of St. Marc, to surrender with his force, consisting of two thousand men. This treachery was almost decisive.

Toussaint, Christophe, and Dessalines still held strong positions, and it required a considerable time and great sacrifice of life to dislodge them. Le Clerc trying every device to gain over the black troops, promoted many of those who had previously joined him, and by kindness towards others became so far exalted in negro estimation that they undertook to allure their brethren. In a short period Toussaint was left with few adherents. One reverse was followed up by another. Toussaint's fortitude never forsook him. He knew that the enemy would have to contend with greater obstacles than any which his resistance could present. Le Clerc, elated by success, became impatient to complete the great object of the expedition,—that of restoring the planters to their hereditary estates, of placing the negroes once more under their servitude, and binding the French government to resist all attempts to disturb the planters.

This impolitic attempt of Le Clerc excited general indignation. The planters, apprehensive of the destructive consequences of so rash a proceeding, declined to avail themselves of the offer.

The credulous cultivators, who had been allured by the promises of Le Clerc, began to consult their own safety, and to devise means to evade the orders of the French general.

Such of the negro troops as had joined the French began to feel terrified lest they should be forced back into slavery.

Toussaint seized the favourable moment, and with the most extraordinary celerity formed a junction with Christophe. The cultivators flocked to their standard; they moved on by forced marches with surprising rapidity, driving their enemy from one post to another, without meeting with the least opposition, until they appeared before Cape François.

Le Clerc, shut up in the besieged city of Cape François, and reduced to the greatest extremities, was saved by a strong reinforcement which arrived from France. But in the city, from the number of people within its walls, pestilential symptoms appeared, and the inhabitants and troops were prostrated by its ravages.

In this emergency, Le Clerc proclaimed "Liberty and equality to all the inhabitants of St. Domingo, without regard to colour," and an apology for his conduct, with an assurance that he desired nothing but to reconcile conflicting opinions, appease internal discord, restore peace, and place the colony in a prosperous condition.

All classes in Hayti are said to have concurred in one point, that resistance to the French was only justifiable, for the preservation of that liberty, which the national assembly of France had proclaimed.

Finally, to the prayers of the great body of the people Toussaint formally, yet reluctantly, assented. Dessalines was of opinion that no negotiations should be entered into with Le Clerc, except for the evacuation of the colony by the French forces. Both chiefs doubted the sincerity of the French general, and believed that his propositions were only intended to sacrifice them afterwards. Christophe, however, from discovering some symptoms of defection among his troops, opened a negotiation with Le Clerc, and officers were appointed for that purpose. Christophe demanded a general amnesty and the preservation of his own rank and property, as well as that of Toussaint and Dessalines, and of all the people of Hayti. To this Le Clerc unwillingly acceded, and the arrangements were accordingly concluded.

Toussaint and Dessalines, standing almost alone against the demands of the people, finally consented to the terms granted to Christophe for a short time. This agreement ending a contest, as cruel and sanguinary as any recorded in the annals of war. By this temporary peace the island of St. Domingo was admitted to be under the sovereignty of France.

The cultivators and proprietors returned to their homes, and recommenced their agricultural labours: hoping to remain in tranquillity, their families enjoying those comforts which the horrors of war had long denied them. Toussaint, Dessalines, and Christophe, retired to their respective plantations; being assured by Le Clerc, that their persons and property should be held sacred, and that instructions should be transmitted to them, upon which they were to act in their future military commands. Dessalines and Christophe were far from confident of either personal safety or of retaining their estates; nor did they slumber in their homes.

Toussaint, relying on the captain-general's honour, lived happily with his family on his plantation near Gonaives; had not his two sons been still detained as hostages: of their fate no intelligence was ever received. The retirement of Toussaint was of short duration. The perfidious Le Clerc caused his house, at night, when asleep, unconscious and unsuspecting, to be surrounded by troops, who dragged Toussaint from his bed, from his faithful wife, and beloved children, and carried him immediately on board a French frigate. He submitted to his fate, and left it to his countrymen to avenge his wrongs. He only asked for the protection of his family, but they were soon hurried on board the same frigate, and sent to France to perish in a dungeon.

Thus terminated the career of Toussaint l'Ouverture. History can scarcely afford a more base and unjustifiable act of perfidy. It was awfully avenged.

After the atrocity committed on Toussaint and his family, Le Clerc, about the end of June, 1802, issued regulations for a new form of government.

CHAPTER V.

REIGN OF DESSALINES.

No sooner was the seizure of Toussaint known, than Dessalines, Christophe, and Clerveaux, flew to arms, and called the cultivators and all others to join their standard, to revenge the atrocity committed on their chief, and to defend themselves against the French general. In a few days, they were at the head of a large force, well armed and equipped; and they determined on a most desperate struggle for liberty. The French troops were hourly diminishing from disease. The officers were dying rapidly, a disaffected spirit had manifested itself, and not only the privates and subaltern officers deserted their standards, but even generals followed the example. Scenes of horrible carnage and destruction followed. The atrocities of the French are said to have exceeded those of their negro opponents. Blood-hounds were brought in by the French, but the negroes were prepared for them; and although, in some instances, they tore some persons, and devoured a child or two, yet were shot in great numbers, and rendered useless, from the negroes having been always prepared to shoot them.

In the plains near the Cape, and in the city, the massacres by the French were indiscriminate. Scenes of carnage and destruction seemed to have reached their height, when the French force began rapidly to diminish from the effects of a pestilence which soon raged through the whole army. The general-in-chief, Le Clerc, died from disease on the 1st of November, leaving to memory a character, in which were assembled almost every crime, unredeemed for by one single virtue.

The command of the army devolved on General Rochambeau, a worthy successor of Le Clerc.

In the early part of 1803, nothing was decided on either side. Rochambeau and Dessalines fought a battle, in which the latter was victorious. Carnage and massacres followed. The French general, who took about 500 prisoners, put them all to death, careless of the fate of his own soldiers in the power of his enemy. The latter retaliated; and on the following morning, at day-break, on as many gibbets, there were exhibited 500 French officers and men sacrificed, in retaliation for the savage conduct of the French general.

War having broken out between England and France in July following, a British squadron appeared off Cape François, and blockaded the harbour. This force accelerated the expulsion of the French. The squadron precluded the possibility of the French receiving any supplies. The garrison and inhabitants of the city were reduced to great want and distress. Horses, mules, asses, and dogs, were devoured.

Preparations being made to take the city by storm; the French commander-in-chief offered to capitulate. Dessalines received these proposals; and arti-

cles were signed on the 19th of November highly favourable to the French : for they provided for the security of private property, and that all their sick and wounded should be carefully attended to by the blacks, and afterwards conveyed to France in vessels bearing a neutral flag. For the evacuation ten days were allowed, and Rochambeau thought that the strong and stormy winds which prevailed during the autumnal months, might blow off the British ships, and enable the French squadron to steal away unperceived : but, finding it impossible to elude the British squadron, Rochambeau was obliged to capitulate with the British admiral ; and his squadron of three frigates and nearly twenty smaller vessels, each with the prisoners to the number of about 8000 men, were taken first to Jamaica, and afterwards to England.

Thus ended the war for the recovery by France of St. Domingo. Upwards of 40,000 men, which arrived from France at different times were defeated, and about three-fourths destroyed.

In the end of December, 1803, the negroes and coloured people of Hayti were in quiet possession of the island. The successors of Toussaint had not that influence over the cultivators which their predecessor commanded. Neither persuasion, nor the expectation of gain could prevail upon labourers to return to their agricultural employment : and immediately after the war, it would have been impolitic, if not utterly impracticable, to have enforced it.

Commerce had been suspended, from the want of articles of exchange for the manufactures of Europe, and the provisions of America.

Toussaint certainly made great efforts to revive commerce as well as agriculture. He promoted both to an extent which, when the state of the country and the agitation of the people are examined, appears surprising. The system adopted by Toussaint was not dissimilar to that which prevails in Russia, where the peasantry are "*adscripti glebæ*." He acted wisely, though severely, for the benefit of his people, of whose innate love of indolence, he was no mean judge. If he was severe in his anxiety to promote industry and exertion, he was impartial.

The population of Hayti at this period had greatly diminished ; the natural increase had been very small, and the ravages of war had created a great decrease of numbers, exclusive of the emigration which had taken place under the protection of the French. The number of the population in 1802, as estimated was 375,000 ; of which 290,000 were cultivators, 47,700 domestics, sailors, &c., and 37,300 soldiers. By a subsequent statement of the population of the island in the year 1803, immediately after the expulsion of the French, the number appears to have been about 348,000, of which 272,000 were cultivators, 35,000 soldiers, and the remainder were composed of domestics, artisans, and a few sailors. The difference, between these two statements of 27,000, in so short a time appears large, but the destruction of life was very great. The emigration to the Spanish part of the island was considerable. Many fled there to save themselves from a fate which awaited those who had wavered. The successors of Toussaint

they believed would visit them with capital penalties; and from the ferocity of Dessalines they had little mercy to expect.

Dessalines declared Hayti independent on the 1st of January, 1804, and the first steps taken by him on being elected to the chief command, were to endeavour to prevent emigration,—to remove delusions under which the negroes were oppressed,—to make it generally known, that all previous opinions and transgressions should be forgotten,—and to invite back those who had been allured to take part with the French, and who emigrated in consequence; assuring them protection and security. All those who were disposed to accompany the French army were freely allowed to depart; and many took advantage of this clemency, who afterwards had to regret their credulity.

A proclamation, signed by Dessalines, Christophe, and Clerveaux, a mulatto (in which the independence of the colony is declared), encouraged the emigrants to return to their properties, and further declares, “towards those men who do us justice, we will act as brothers; let them rely for ever on our esteem and friendship; let them return amongst us. The God who protects us, the God of freemen, bids us stretch out towards them our conquering arms.” Many were allured by this promise of security and protection, and returned from the interior fastnesses to which they had fled.

Hayti, the name given to the island by the aborigines, was adopted by Dessalines, instead of St. Domingo, and he demanded that the people should execute vengeance upon their former oppressors. The white French people were indiscriminately massacred by the troops, and by command of the monster Dessalines. No age or sex was spared. Females were first violated, and then bayoneted and shockingly mangled.

This execrable tyrant, proclaimed that he intended to stay his vengeance, for the sufferings to which his brethren had been exposed, and that all those who had escaped execution under this military decree, should meet for the purpose of receiving protective papers, which would secure them from the vengeance of the people. Unsuspecting and deluded, they came forth from their hiding-places to the place announced for issuing the protecting tickets: they were then immediately arrested and executed.

He also concerted measures for the reduction of the Spanish division of the island, in which there were but few slaves: and those being mildly treated, slavery was only known by name. The people and the few slaves therefore united to oppose the tyrant Dessalines, should he appear before the city of St. Domingo. He laid siege to the city, conceiving that the terror of his name would dispel any resistance. But the besieged had determined, by vigorous efforts, to repel him. A reinforcement arrived soon after from France, and Dessalines raised the siege and retreated to the west.

On his return from St. Domingo, he was, or rather caused himself to be, on the 8th of October, 1804, with great parade, crowned “Emperor of Hayti.”

A new constitution was promulgated, and in it there were articles, showing, on the part of those who framed it, a desire to promote the happiness and improve the condition and morals of the people. By it no Haytian was entitled to the privileges of a citizen, who did not inherit all the qualities of a good father, a good son, and a good husband. No child could be disinherited by his parents; *emigration subjected a person to the loss of his citizenship, and a citizen becoming bankrupt lost all his privileges; all citizens too were required to make themselves skilful in some mechanical trade.* Such enactments as these did credit to the persons from whom they emanated; and Dessalines consented that they should form a part of the fundamental laws which he had sworn to observe, and by which he engaged to govern. By the new constitution, religion was tolerated, although it was declared that there should be no predominant religion. Marriage was declared to be merely a civil ceremony, tending to improve society, and to inspire the people with a disgust for unlimited sensuality so prevalent in the country.

Dessalines was, without an attempt at contradiction in his favour, the most atrocious monster of cruelty that ever appeared in Hayti; yet he possessed uncommon powers of mind, and when he had committed his indescribable massacres and tortures on the French people, he really endeavoured to encourage agriculture and commerce, and consulted citizens of the United States and others on these points. After his coronation there was peace for some time, and people of colour and the negroes began to return to their homes; others from the French and British colonies came back. In order to increase *the male population*, he wished to enter into a treaty with the British agent from Jamaica, "offering to open the ports of Hayti to the British slave-ships, and to grant to the Jamaica importers the exclusive right of selling negroes in Hayti! The privilege was to extend to the importation of men only, and that they were not to be sold to any other person but those appointed by the government, which, it is said, wanted them to increase the military establishment," but, in fact, for the cultivation of the government lands which had fallen from neglect into a state of unproductiveness. This proposal was rejected by the British agent. Dessalines contended, "that it was a measure of necessity, of political expediency, which, at least, *with him*, superseded every other consideration; that he should be performing an act of humanity towards the African race, by bringing them into his dominions instead of their being taken to Jamaica and other islands as slaves."

In 1805, the population of Hayti was estimated at about 400,000, of all denominations, so that by births and by emigration from other countries, there was an increase in three years of about 25,000, taking M. Humboldt's statement of the population in 1802 to be the most correct estimate.

The rural agricultural code of Toussaint was enforced by Dessalines, but with some alteration. The cultivators were permitted by Dessalines to change the estates on which they had chosen to work, on representing their wish to the

commanding officer of the district, and by proving to him a sufficient cause. The code of Toussaint, as acted upon by his successor, was severe in the extreme, especially on the government estates. Dessalines knew well the work which could be performed by one labourer, and had a daily return sent in to him of work done, and if there had been any diminution from that of the day before, he often sentenced the negro defaulters to hard labour on the public roads.

The greater portion of labour was directed to the cultivation of coffee. The sugar plantations had been destroyed, and the sugar works demolished. Little sugar was made, in proportion to the quantity produced in the time of the French.

Dessalines, although considered an infidel, enjoined all persons to celebrate public worship, and observe the Sunday. This was merely policy for preserving order. He observed in his own person the forms of religious worship, as an example to his subjects, not from regard for religion. He encouraged marriage, and rigidly exacted obedience to its injunctions, and publicly condemned sensuality and voluptuousness. In his own person he is asserted to have been depraved and licentious.

His standing force after the conclusion of the war did not exceed 20,000 infantry and cavalry. The militia, or national guards, were numerous, every man from the age of sixteen to fifty was obliged to assemble four times a year, and undergo a regular training. His troops were active, well-disciplined and armed, but wretchedly clothed. The fortifications he endeavoured to put in a state of defence ; fearing at all times that the French should again invade the island.

It is uncertain whether Dessalines, impressed by a conviction of his enormities, had endeavoured to reform his conduct, or whether he attempted to administer with moderation, from policy. But he was not trusted by the people, who secretly detested him as a tyrant. They at last determined, aided by his troops, to conspire against him, and near the north gate of the city of Port-au-Prince, he was shot on the 17th of October, 1806, by one of his own soldiers, a mulatto youth, about fifteen years of age.

Dessalines was born and worked as a slave. His father belonged to a carpenter, or *shingler*, the latter much the same as a slater. He was short, very stoutly made, and capable of undergoing extraordinary fatigue. He could neither read nor write. He merely signed his name. His military talents displayed daring movements, rather than well-planned operations. His activity was surprising, and the celerity with which he moved from one point of his command to another, both alarmed and astonished his enemies. He was vain, capricious, and fond of flattery ; still he was an extraordinary man, and would, if differently instructed and disciplined, have not practised atrocities, which were not only tyrannical, but, even in Hayti, utterly impolitic with regard to his own power.

In the time of Dessalines, there was no competition for the chief command : from the terror of his name, none daring to oppose him ; but after his death, civil war broke forth.

CHAPTER VI.

REIGN OF CHRISTOPHE AND PETION.

CHRISTOPHE was next in command to Dessalines, and on the death of Dessalines he assumed the supreme command in Hayti. He stood very high in the estimation of the people ; and his bravery, humanity, and moral character, diffused an approval of his elevation. His bravery was indisputable.

Christophe at once evinced both sound judgment and good sense, and brought into his counsels the best men, both black and coloured, with great impartiality ; he only objected to French whites.

Christophe assumed only the simple designation of "Chief of the Government of Hayti," under which, and not an imperial title and dignity, he determined to govern. He immediately endeavoured to establish a commercial understanding with Great Britain and the United States, to which purport he expressed his anxious wish to the officers of the British men-of-war, who frequented the port of the Cape, and to whom he always extended the greatest courtesy. To the Americans, who resided at the Cape for the purpose of carrying on commercial dealings, he also communicated his views on trade. The latter immediately transmitted his communication to their government, but the proposition, made to the British, received no encouragement. British colonial interests prevented a commercial treaty with Christophe. The rejection of his offer was a flagrant blunder, both in regard to British trade, and to the countenance which England should have extended to Christophe. He, meantime, directed his attention to other important measures for the improvement of his country.

His first address, dated the 24th of October, 1806, declared the commercial system which he intended to establish. *It proclaimed certain free ports, and that the flag of all nations would be respected, and property protected ;* that personal security was pledged ; and that the odious law, passed by Dessalines, which established exclusive consignments to the citizens of the country, was abrogated ; and that every individual should have the right to place his property in the hands of his own agent, who should have the full protection of government.

Americans and Europeans soon found advantages in trading with Hayti. The manufactures of England, and the provisions of the United States, flowed into its ports. The people were not able to purchase the rich manufactures of Europe ; they bought those which their means enabled them to purchase, buying on credit was not resorted to ; it was a barter trade with foreigners ; there was then little, if any risk, in the commerce with Hayti.

A competitor with Christophe for the supreme authority arose in the person

of Alexandre Petion, a mulatto, who had succeeded to the command held by Clerveaux, after the death of that general, and subsequently became commander-in-chief at Port-au-Prince. Petion was greatly respected by the people. He was in manners mild and attractive, and possessed talents of a very superior order. He had been educated in France, and served in the French armies, in which he had held the rank of a field officer. As scientific engineer, he had rendered essential services to Toussaint and Dessalines, who rapidly advanced him in military rank.

The competitors had recourse to arms. Christophe secured the whole of the north; on making an attempt on Port-au-Prince, he was repelled, and returned to Cape François.

In the February following, he published his new constitution, in which the Catholic religion is declared to be the religion of the state, and every other religion tolerated, and he declared "that the government solemnly guarantees the foreign merchants the security of their persons and properties." He also contemplated the establishment of public schools, as soon as the state of the country should be sufficiently recovered to enable him to carry his intentions into effect. He subsequently, on the subject of agriculture, expressed an anxiety, beyond ordinary solicitude, for that great source of wealth. He exhorted the people to an unceasing application to the culture of the lands, by the produce of which, foreigners would be attracted to their ports, to exchange the produce of their own countries, as well as money. Being uninformed as to the policy which foreign countries might adopt towards him, his wish was to remain quiet, until they decided, hoping that it might be such, as would be favourable to their commerce, and tend to bind an intercourse founded on common interests.

The declaration often made by Christophe, that he never would allow any interference on the part of Hayti with the colonies of any European state, was not believed to be sincere; until it was discovered that some persons in the southern parts of the island were intriguing with others in Jamaica, who were hostile to their government. He immediately arrested those in Hayti, and had them tried and punished for infringing his declaration. The British government, in consequence of his integrity, permitted an intercourse with certain ports in Hayti, by an order in council dated February, 1807.

In the year 1811, Christophe was elected to the throne, under the title of King Henry; which seems to have been approved of by the majority, if not of the whole of his subjects. It was believed by them that a monarchy suited the exigencies of the times, as more likely to make them respected abroad and maintain their peace at home. It was also an act of gratitude to one who had through a long career of war and desolation, rendered such important services to them.

At the time when Christophe became king of the northern part of Hayti a

cessation of hostilities was agreed to between him and his competitor: through, it was generally believed, the intercession of the British government.

Hostilities having been suspended, both rulers turned their attention to, peaceful industry, and chiefly agriculture and commerce. They adopted opposite courses. One adopted a system of rigid enforcement. The other submitted to the indolent habits of his people.

Christophe knew well the real character and disposition of his countrymen; and that to govern them, strong and powerful, yet just, measures were demanded. He, like Toussaint, knew also that if he were to relax authority, and permit them to follow their natural disposition, indolence would become general. Mr. Franklin, in his work on Hayti, observes of Christophe's rural policy, that—

“He was persuaded that, before it would be possible to raise his country in wealth and in happiness, an implicit obedience to such regulations as he should deem advisable must be enforced; that if the people were left to their own free agency, from their innate love of indolence, nothing could be obtained from them: they would wander about quite unconcerned for to-morrow, satisfied with that which the day had produced. He knew that the negro race were prone to idleness, and addicted to lust and sensuality; that they were ignorant of the duties of civilised life, and of the ties which bound them together; and it was a matter of the first importance for the consideration of those who were to direct the affairs of state, to devise the means by which they should be taught their duty to their country; that idleness and concupiscence were vices of the worst cast; and that unless an upright and moral course were pursued, they could neither expect improvement in their individual condition, nor advance themselves in the opinions of mankind.”

With these impressions, Christophe and his council, and other advisers set about a work, which, however imperfect they may be considered as legislators, exhibits no little share of talent and judgment. His “Code Henri” appeared in 1812. Franklin says,

“It is a digest of the laws passed for the government of the kingdom, and seems to have provided for every class of offences. Some of its laws are new, and others are founded upon the laws of his predecessors, with such judicious curtailments or additions as circumstances seemed to require. Those of agriculture and commerce are decidedly such as were in force in the time of Toussaint and Dessalines; and as they were effectual, and tended highly to augment those sources of national wealth, it displayed great discernment and discretion in Christophe to adopt them as part of his code. With this shield for the executive administration of the government, Christophe began to exact a due observance of all those measures likely to be beneficial to his country. He enforced attention to agriculture, encouraged commerce with foreigners, whom he led to his ports by extensive purchases of their commodities to supply the wants of his government, and he made rapid strides towards the advancement of education by establishing schools for the instruction of youth, and by inviting men of learning and talents from all countries, for the purpose of presiding at the head of the institutions which he had formed for the promotion of science.

“It has been often asserted that the negroes are as capable of receiving instruction in morality, religion, and every branch of science, as the people of any other nation or colour. This I shall not attempt to deny; but it may not be improper to say, that very few instances have yet been adduced to support such a theory, and that Hayti is an illustration of the contrary being the fact; for with all the advantages, with all the opportunities which Christophe afforded his people to improve their minds, and to seek

for knowledge in the various branches of science, very few indeed have been found who have raised themselves above mediocrity, whilst thousands have been found incapable of tuition, or have rejected instruction altogether.

"Mazeres, in speaking of them, says, 'The negro is only a grown child, shallow, light, fickle, thoughtless, neither keenly sensible of joy, nor of sorrow, improvident, without resources, in his spirits or his soul. Careless, like other sluggards; rest, singing, his women, and his dress form the contracted limits of his taste. I say nothing of his affections, for affections, properly so called, are too strong for a soul so soft, so inactive as his.'"^{*}

Christophe was induced also to improve the aspect of the country, by divesting it of the dilapidation effected during the war; and by commanding the nobility, and those attached to the government, to erect large houses on their estates, and to ornament the plantations in the vicinity of their residences; but he did not succeed, except in a few instances, the poverty of the men raised to dignities, made it impossible for them to comply with his commands.

After the fall of Napoleon in 1814, the ministers of Louis XVIII. sent commissioners to Hayti to try by a negotiation, or by menace, to bring under France the sovereignty of the island. De Medina, the commissioner deputed to Christophe, had served in the army of Toussaint, and afterwards betrayed his cause and joined Le Clerc. He was an object of suspicion to Christophe, and from some irregularity, respecting his credentials, he was arrested and seized. On the examination of his papers, it was discovered that his object was to excite insurrection among the people, and endeavour to prevail upon them to recognise Louis XVIII. as their sovereign: that monarch assuring them of paternal solicitude, and his pledge that they should retain their property and military rank.

Medina was tried and found guilty by a military tribunal of the charges. He was committed to the prison of the Cape, and it was supposed died there; but no accounts were ever obtained respecting him.

Monsieur Lavaysse, a man of ability, seems to have been the chief commissioner. He proceeded to Port-au-Prince for the purpose of carrying on a negotiation with Petion, and met with no better success,—except that having been more cautious he avoided the fate of Medina. Petion was well informed of the nature of the mission, and was prepared to give a decided negative to the propositions of the French crown.

Christophe was undoubtedly far better adapted than Petion to govern the Haytians. Of a resolute temper, and not dreading the consequences of his measures, however oppressive, and aided by men of ability, he enforced a rigid system of government, and exacted from the people an entire submission to his will. In consequence, the division over which he reigned, presented an aspect of prosperity quite different from that of the south. Agriculture was far better,

^{*} Letter to Sismonde.

attended to, the produce of the soil increased rapidly, and trade made some progress. Both contributed to the revenue, which in a short time amounted to the expenditure, and the people felt little oppression from taxation.

Petion adopted a system of relaxation, which involved the greatest fiscal difficulties, and all the evils inseparable from an indolent and poor population. The people, allowed to follow their idle inclinations, indulged in the propensities of the negro race; and to prosecute measures for the advancement of the wealth and prosperity of the country, soon became impracticable. Agriculture was neglected, cultivators relapsed into idle, vicious, and unclean habits. Vice prevailed, and the cultivation of the soil was entirely neglected; except so far as mere subsistence rendered necessary.

Petion never seems to have insisted upon the due execution of the rural laws; and his people, and their lands, exhibited wretchedness and poverty, in consequence of his wanting the resolution and decision which distinguished the administration of Christophe. The mild character of Petion disqualified him from ruling over a rude and untaught people. He was indulgent, irresolute, and humane; while Christophe was resolute, decided, and unrelenting in his system of government. Walton says Petion was,

“Of a sensible and humane character; tutored in the schools of Europe, his mind has received an expansion that fits him for the helm of government, and his exterior an address that would distinguish him in a court. Ill-suited, perhaps, to witness scenes to which his station as a military commander exposed him in the field of battle, the tear of sensibility often bedews his cheek at the sight of slaughter, and though brave, enterprising, and bold, he values more the responsive glow of a humane act, than the crimsoned laurel he has plucked from the brow of his adversary. He sighs at the purchase of victory with the sacrifice of those subjects whom he loves; in short, nothing can be more descriptive of his peculiar virtues, than the motto of an English artist, at the foot of his portrait—‘Il n’a jamais fait couler les larmes de personne.’”*

Petion soon became involved in fiscal poverty. A fictitious or debased currency was suggested and adopted as an expedient: that is to say, swindling the people under the sanction of government. It is true that Europe afforded a precedent to the educated Petion: that France, Austria, and some other European states had cheated the people by debasing the currency. Petion could not borrow money, even upon the security of the public lands, to meet the ordinary expenses of government. It was impossible that fictitious coin would ever be called in, unless at a ruinous depreciation. He first issued four millions of dollars consisting of about nineteen parts of tin and one part silver. This temporary relief enabled him to carry on the government for a short time without any calls on the people. No measure could have been more unwise. It caused them to become even more improvident than they had previously been; and the foreign merchants whom he had induced to settle in his dominions, lost all confidence in the stability of the government, their importations gradually fell off, and the customs' revenue fell infinitely short of the previous receipts.

* Walton, vol. i.

For the encouragement of agriculture, instead of enforcing the rural laws of compulsory cultivation for the benefit of the cultivator, the government, whenever the price of products were low, bought largely, in order to raise the price. This most fallacious and impolitic measure was not only pernicious as a burden on the treasury, but it drove foreign purchasers out of the market.

Christophe compelled the magistrates to see the rural code rigidly executed, and accompanied by his staff, he rode personally to different parts to ascertain the state of agriculture. He thoroughly comprehended, that to give way to the disposition of the people, would render them irrevocably lazy and vicious. His country in consequence advanced in wealth and in orderly government, the cultivators of the soil, instead of living in idleness, disease, and misery, were industrious, fared well, and lived in comparative morality and contentment. The cultivators of the soil under Petion's mild administration presented a most instructive and lamentable contrast. Indolent, improvident, thoughtless of the future, consuming what the hour afforded them, they passed their time. They lived like some animals, in apathy and indifference. Depravity of all shades, and especially the great passion of their sensual appetites, pervaded the whole people. Disease also, accompanied by poverty, soon rendered them a most wretched race.

For some time before the death of Petion, which took place on the 29th of March, 1818, he named Boyer for his successor, and he was immediately declared president.

Christophe did not interfere with the election of Boyer. The former had accumulated a very large surplus in his treasury, with which he intended to purchase the Spanish territory, and to annex it to his dominions, but his death in October, 1820, put an end to the negotiation which he had opened; an union between the north and south parts was then effected under one government, designated "The Republic of Hayti."

His resolute system was no doubt despotic; his ambition was great, and his absolutism was so severe, that it caused a revolt of the garrison of St. Marc, and invited Boyer to assume the government. The city of Cape Haytian followed the example, and the troops prepared to march against Christophe, who was confined by sickness at his palace of Sans Souci. His guards revolted, and finding escape impossible, he shot himself. His sons and several of his officers of state were murdered by the troops. His eldest son begged them to save his life; but the youngest bravely defended himself, and killing several of the soldiers, he was, however, cut down and shockingly mangled.

His wife and daughters were spared by Boyer, who sent them to Port-au-Prince by sea, and he afterwards permitted them to leave the country. They then sailed for England, where they were received with some attention. A small estate

was secured for, and her valuable jewels were restored to, Madame Christophe. She was a good humane person, who often subdued her husband's severities in the infliction of punishment. Christophe is now, however, considered, notwithstanding his absolute spirit and character, as the only man that has appeared in Hayti competent to rule over a people so ignorant and unprepared for liberty. It is believed, that if Christophe had lived he would have elevated Hayti in affluence and in civilisation. Since his death, the former has diminished, and the latter has not advanced.

CHAPTER VII.

REIGN OF PRESIDENT BOYER.

JEAN PIERRE BOYER, a mulatto, was born at Port-au-Prince. His father, who possessed some wealth, was a store-keeper and a tailor in that city. His mother was a negress of the Congo country in Africa, and had been a slave. He joined the cause of the commissioners, Santhonax and Polverel, with whom he retired, after the arrival of the English. He accompanied General Rigaud to France, after the submission of the south to Toussaint. On the voyage he was captured by the Americans, during the short dispute between France and the United States. Having resided in France some time, he attached himself to the expedition of Le Clerc, for the subjugation of the colony. On the death of Le Clerc he joined Petion, who appointed him, one after the other, his aide-de-camp, private secretary, chief of his staff, general of the arrondissement of Port-au-Prince, and finally his successor.

Boyer, on his succeeding to the government, was in appearance below the middle size, very slender, with an unengaging countenance, but a quick, penetrating eye. His constitution was weak, and afflicted with an organic disease, relieved only by temperance in living. Parade and show, which became a custom, he seemed personally to have no propensity for, but he compelled his staff and household to appear in all their glittering embellishments. He appeared seldom among the people except on a Sunday, when he came forth at the head of his troops, and after reviewing them, he rode through the city, attended by his staff and guards. He was vain of his person, and fancied himself and his manners irresistibly attractive.

On the 21st of October, 1820, Boyer entered Gonaives without any opposition ;

on the 22nd he marched to Cape Haytian, the capital of Christophe, which he entered the same night at the head of 20,000 men, and on the 26th he was proclaimed president of the north, with the salutations of "Long live the Republic of Hayti!" "Independence, Liberty, and Equality!" and "President Boyer!"

The revolution in the north, was followed by that in the eastern, or Spanish part, at the end of the succeeding year, in the city of St. Domingo. A deputation of the principal inhabitants waited on President Boyer at Port-au-Prince, and tendered submission of the east to the republic, soliciting that it might be incorporated with the republic of Hayti.

In the Spanish part there were a great many Haytian refugees, who had made some progress in their plantations, and with the people of colour formed the largest proportion of the inhabitants. On the arrival of Boyer, in the city of St. Domingo, the people received him, it is said, unanimously. Arrangements for the future government of the east were made, and General Borjellas was left in command of the city.

By the annexation of the Spanish part, and that without bloodshed, the whole island came under one government, and Boyer had no competitor to oppose him.

Boyer attempted little, that was really efficient, for bringing forth the public resources of the country; he seemed insensible to the advantages to be derived from agriculture; the people soon became indolent and obstinate. Commerce declined and almost vanished. The soil produced little for market. Finding his financial wants increasing, he issued debased coin.

The most senseless unwise scheme which Boyer effected, that which now so greatly oppresses Hayti, and which led in a great measure to the last revolution, was his sending, in May, 1824, two agents, Rouanne and La Rose, senators, to Paris, to negotiate for the recognition of the independence of their country, avowedly admitting by it, that France still held the sovereignty over it. These agents were authorised to offer 100,000,000 francs, with certain privileges of trade to France; but the offer was rejected, and the agents ordered to quit the country without delay. The Haytians, in fact, entrapped their independence; and when it was known in France, that Boyer had granted an English company the privilege of working mines in the eastern part of Hayti, a fleet of fourteen ships of the line sailed under Admirals Jarien and Grivel, for reducing the Haytians to acknowledge the King of France as sovereign over them, or to submit to such terms as should be tendered.

To Baron Mackau was confided the negotiation on the part of France.

On his arrival at Port-au-Prince, the admirals moored their ships abreast of the city. From the wretched condition of the batteries and forts, one line-of-battle ship could have demolished the whole.

Two officers of the president's staff, were sent on board the ship of the commander-in-chief, to ascertain the object of the expedition, and they returned to the president, with communications from Baron Mackau, explaining the nature of his mission, assuring him that it was entirely pacific; and on the part of the King of France, meeting in accordance the overtures which Boyer had previously made by his own agents.

The next day Baron Mackau landed under a salute from the forts, and proceeded to the government-house, where he was received by the president, surrounded by the officers of state and his staff.

The details of this negotiation would be uninteresting. It ended by an acquiescence on the part of Boyer to an ordonnance, dated Paris, the 17th of April, 1825, and signed by the king. It stipulates that the ports in the *French part of St. Domingo* shall be open to the commerce of all nations; that French ships and merchandise shall be admitted into the *French part*, on paying only half the duties exacted from other nations, and the same on the exports thence; that the *inhabitants of the French part of St. Domingo* agree to pay, in five annual instalments, the sum of *one hundred and fifty millions of francs* as an indemnity for the losses of the ancient colonists; and that when the conditions of this ordonnance are fulfilled, the *French part of St. Domingo is declared independent*.

Fêtes were given in Port-au-Prince to Baron Mackau, and the French officers were continually beset by persons paid by the president to cry in the streets, "Vive Charles the Xth!" "Vive le Dauphin de France!" "Vive la France!" "Vive Haïti!" "Vive le President d'Haïti!" "Vive l'Independence!"

The negotiation for independence having been arranged, it was considered necessary that commissioners should be sent to France for the final adjustment of some differences which could not be provided for in the preliminary treaty, and for the raising of money, by a loan, for the payment of the first instalment of the indemnity.

They failed in their mission; and the cabinet of France tendered to them the basis of a definitive treaty comprising twenty-one articles, with which they were ordered to return to Hayti, and to lay it before their government for approval, or rejection. Boyer was anxious to accept it, but his council and the secretary-general, Inginac, opposed it. Boyer, much against his inclination, rejected the treaty, but intimated to the French cabinet his wish that a treaty, reciprocally advantageous, should be contracted, and establish a good understanding between the two countries. He further pledged himself to conform to the admission of the ships of France, on paying only half duties, and for the payment of the indemnity as the instalments became due.

The British government having decided on sending a consul-general to Hayti, Mr. Franklin, who was the bearer of the communication, says,

“ Boyer’s officers of state and the people in general manifested the greatest solicitude for his appearance ; a solicitude, emanating from a great sense of the importance which they attached to it. The president suppressed his feelings, whatever they might have been ; but at times he could not resist the temptation of condemning the delay which intervened between the appointment of the consul and his departure from England ; and he was often heard to say, that he questioned the sincerity of the British cabinet respecting such intentions, and that he believed it to be only a *ruse de commerce*. The inhabitants, however, were of a different opinion ; they knew the integrity of the British government, and were confident that its commerce would not be neglected, but promoted and extended, wherever it could be accomplished.

“ On the 25th of May, the consul-general and his suite arrived in his majesty’s ship *Druid*, Captain Chambers ; but as she did not appear off the harbour till nearly dark, she was not recognised by the government officers, and consequently did not salute before the following morning, when it was returned by the forts, which was the only demonstration of respect offered by the Haytian authorities on his arrival. Nay, President Boyer could not conceal his antipathy, nor restrain his dislike to the English, even though he perceived that the presence of the British mission had a strong tendency to reconcile all classes of his citizens to his impolitic measures. He individually neglected even to congratulate the consul on his arrival ; he did not pay him the common civility of sending one of his aides-de-camp to express himself friendly to the object of his visit, as was the case on the arrival of the French consul-general, to whom he sent two of his staff to offer him the assurances of his high consideration and esteem. The consul-general of England was only visited by a subaltern of artillery on the staff of General Inginac, and the general was absolutely precluded paying a higher compliment to him by the positive orders of Boyer.”

The only department of government to which Boyer seemed to devote his attention, was the military establishment. He fixed it at 45,000 men, besides the national guards, 113,000, who were armed and disciplined.

The reign of Boyer was of a long duration ; yet he did not enjoy that career, without attempts to dethrone him. Boyer was no doubt a man of great personal energy, and powers far above the ordinary standard were requisite to have maintained authority over, not only the former French part, but even the Spanish division, for twenty-four years. That he was a *despot*, there is no evidence to dispute ; but we believe that none but a despot, little under that of a dictator, could have ruled for nearly a quarter of a century over such a people, as constituted the whole heterogeneous population of Hayti. He is accused, by his opponents, of having almost destroyed the legislative representation, by the limitations introduced by him in 1822, 1832, 1839, and 1842, and by thoroughly destroying, by corruption, its independence ; of filling the senate with members either of his own relations, or those whom he could influence or corrupt ; of assuming powers not authorised by the constitution, especially that of coining money, debasing the currency, and of pardoning criminals ; of suspending the civil laws ; of an unconstitutional organising of the army, in order to maintain his absolutism ; of replacing the municipal authority, by establishing, under the pretence of maintaining public order, special commissions in the towns and villages ; of taking the initiative, in imposing customs’ duties, charges, and taxes ; of *altering* the text of the laws, and refusing to promulgate those framed by the legislative

assembly; of depriving citizens from being tried by the civil judges, and having them convicted by courts' martial; of removing honest judges, and replacing them by his own creatures; and of various other treasonable acts.

There may be exaggeration in the foregoing accusations, as to the extent which the *mal*-administration and despotism of Boyer have been exercised; but their general truth is undeniable. Yet, in the year 1842, the stability of the authority of Boyer, and the fidelity of the army, was not doubted. Both were, however, for a considerable time undermined; and, it required but a few daring minds, to cause a general explosion of the power of the despot, and the loyalty of his officers and military forces. There is scarcely a revolution in the history of nations, that has not been preceded by fiscal perplexities, and by public distress. It is the greatest test of wisdom, forecast, and sound judgment, in the ruler, or the statesman, to provide against the calamities of the treasury, and the hunger of the people.

The fiscal perplexities of Boyer, and distress among the inhabitants, were not altogether caused by his own acts; but, in a great degree, they were the natural effects of his measures. The payment of the annual instalments to France, for an indemnity, that was neither morally nor legally due by the citizens of Hayti, and for the voluntary recognition of which, Boyer was guilty, probably with a view to strengthen his own power; and the maintenance of a large army, as well as the corruption of public men, required excessive taxation, and drained the treasury. The people were in consequence compelled to provide for the public burdens. It is true, that the taxes, which were imposed, might have been endured by a population of ordinary industry, but which certainly did not characterise the inhabitants of Hayti. The disastrous earthquake of 1842 was succeeded by an accidental calamity, or, as many believe, an act of conspiracy, which inflicted great distress on a large community. Both led to the development of the pre-existing elements of outbreak, and to a successful revolution.

On the 9th of January, 1843, a fire broke out in Port-au-Prince, and destroyed one-third of the city, including nearly all its wealthy and most populous streets. About 400 houses were utterly destroyed, and the loss of property was enormous. Many of the sufferers owed large sums to foreign merchants; especially to houses in Glasgow and Dundee. The destruction of property, and the consequent poverty, excited exasperation on the part of the rabble, who afterwards attempted several times to fire the remaining part of the city. A few days after, the conduct of the government, respecting an indemnity paid for the illegal detention of a Spanish vessel, created very general disapprobation; and a conspiracy for the overthrow of Boyer was discovered. Its head-quarters were at Aux Cayes, and it extended to Jeremie, Anse de Veau, and other places.

The President, who had often been successful in suppressing conspiracies and revolts by military force—not without severity, considered that the revolt at

Aux Cayes could be without difficulty crushed. But he was undeceived when he learned that General Hérard Rivière, a mulatto, of great energy and boldness, had, on the 28th of January, revolted with two regiments of the line. Hérard marched, first to summon the surrender of Aux Cayes,—but did not attack that city. He then marched to the city of Jeremie, which received him with his troops, and the other insurgents. Here the rebel general established his head-quarters. President Boyer certainly displayed his usual energy, on this formidable revolt; and he first concentrated and then marched three military divisions, under Generals Inginac, Suffren, and Richet, against the insurgents—with a force far more than sufficient to defeat and suppress them. Boyer himself remained in the command of the capital. His measures were ably conceived, decisive, severe, and certainly unscrupulous. He arrested and imprisoned all in the capital whom he considered dangerous; meetings of more than five persons were proclaimed illegal; all letters were opened, and if the fidelity, which he expected from the army had existed, he need not, at least, on this occasion, have feared the deep-rooted disfavour of the people. History, however, proves, that when a whole people are prepared to revolt against their oppressors, the latter can place little confidence in their armies. The bravery of the French army was never questioned; yet that army will ever be found to fight, not for the sovereign alone, but, instinctively, and intelligibly, for the nation, and with the national guards. If this were not true, Louis XVI. would never have been guillotined, and Charles X. would have died King of France.

On the 26th day of February, news arrived at Port-au-Prince, that two actions had taken place between the president's troops and the revolutionary forces,—that the former were in both defeated,—and that the president's soldiers were hourly deserting to the standard of General Hérard. Boyer instantly ordered nearly all the troops in Port-au-Prince to march against the insurgent general. The president, meantime, was actively employed in placing the capital in a state of defence, until he learnt that the national guards, whom he had sent forth against, had joined, Hérard,—that the desertions to the latter were increasing,—that fresh disasters were experienced,—that Generals Borgello and Richet, with the chief division of the army, in garrison at Aux Cayes, and on which Boyer chiefly relied, had surrendered to Hérard,—and, that the surrender of Jacmél immediately followed. On Sunday, the 12th of March, General M'raud, with an army of six thousand of the president's choicest troops and national guards, was ordered by Boyer to attack the advanced post of the revolutionists at Leogane. The action lasted only about ten minutes,—the national guards marched over to the insurgents, followed by three or four regiments of the line; and the remaining débris of this force, the last hope of Boyer, retreated in confusion to Port-au-Prince.

Three of her Britannic majesty's ships of war were then in the harbour; and President Boyer, seeing his case desperate, applied to her majesty's consul for a

retreat on board one of these ships, which request was immediately granted. Boyer, with great dignity, then formally signed his abdication: stating, his only object was to save the effusion of blood at Port-au-Prince; and then, not without risk from being taken by the insurgents, he embarked on board her Britannic majesty's ship *Psyche*, and soon after sailed for Jamaica. The French consul had also placed a French ship of war at the disposal of Boyer; and it is rather surprising that he refused the offer, as he had always been accused of a feeling in favour of France. General Inginac, on the other hand, who had been charged with too great a partiality for the English, embarked on board the French corvette.

CHAPTER VIII.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF PRESIDENTS HÉRARD, GUERRIER, PIERROT, AND RICHE.

ON the 21st of March, General Hérard Rivière entered Port-au-Prince, at the head of 10,000 troops. He was enthusiastically received, and hailed as the liberator and regenerator of the country. A manifesto was published, detailing the degraded state into which the country had been reduced by President Boyer; and a decree deposing him, and enumerating all his treasons, was printed and promulgated. Various acts of government were then administered by the provisional government in the name of Hérard, as "*Chief executor of the will of the sovereign people*," but in reality as military dictator.

Hérard was compelled to march to the Spanish part of Hayti, and reached the city of St. Domingo, in July. At Jeremie, and other places, dissatisfaction arose among the blacks. At Aux Cayes an insurrection broke out, which nearly brought about a fearful collision of classes—the blacks, who are far the most numerous, against the coloured people. General Hérard, then at St. Domingo, immediately sent off one of his staff, and ordered the leaders of the blacks to be arrested: 500 to 600 blacks, led by a negro of the name of Salomon, rose in arms against Hérard's national guards. The black insurgents were, however, about the 15th of August, dispersed by General Lazare, and Salomon was taken prisoner. A similar revolt, headed by a black general named Dalzon, was attempted at Port-au-Prince, Dalzon was arrested, and shot. Other attempts, on the part of the blacks, were suppressed by Hérard, and martial law was proclaimed on the 12th of September. Meantime, it was considered the best remedy against revolts to elect a black president; but General Hérard's claims were not so easily overcome. Other competitors came forward—among which was General Lazare, a negro of about sixty years of age, but ignorant, avaricious, and rapacious. It appeared that the

attempted revolt under Dalzon was connected with a plot, on the part of the blacks, to massacre every coloured man, woman, and child; and that Dalzon had decreed, that every black who should protect any mulatto, would be punished by the tearing out of his eyes and tongue.

The constitutional assembly met in the end of September. The first act of the members was to vote themselves salaries. They then changed the name of Port-au-Prince to that of Port Republican. On the 17th of December, General Hérard accused the constitutional assembly of causing delay in framing a constitution, and the formation of government. He addressed his army, charging the assembly with conspiring against the country, and that unless they gave a constitution by the 20th, he would resign, and retire into private life. The troops immediately saluted him, by *vivas*, as President Hérard Rivière. This was, on the part of Hérard, a mere *coup d'état*; and on the 30th of December, the new constitution was promulgated, and General Charles Hérard Rivière, unanimously, and enthusiastically, elected President of the Republic.

On the 27th of January, 1844, the anniversary of "the revolution of regeneration of 1843" (such was its designation), was celebrated by court ceremonies, *fêtes*, speeches, *vivas* for Hérard, military reviews and spectacles, in imitation of the *fêtes* of July, in Paris.

On the 1st of February, the *Progress*, a journal published at Port Republic, exulted in the happy state of liberty then enjoyed by the citizens of Hayti. "Forty years ago," says this paper, "Dessalines relieved the African race from the ignominious European yoke, under which they groaned for ages. Let us shout, 'Live free, or die' (*Vivre libre, ou mourir*). We are delivered from the ignoble and degraded rule, under Boyer, from 1820 to 1843, by the moral revolution of the latter year." (*Revolution toute morale de 1843.*)

Hérard was unfortunate in the appointments he made of the chief officers of state, especially that of his foreign minister, Dumésle. The latter was the main director of the revolt against Boyer. He was, however, unfitted for business, by the leading infirmity of the inhabitants, idleness. He was plausible, that is, he was a *faisseur de phrases*. The military opposed the new constitution, which was prepared in imitation of the French charter of 1830, and discords between President Hérard and the legislative assembly soon broke forth. Three regiments, under a General Thomas, in the north, protested against the new municipal system, and against *préfets* of departments. Bazin, a black deputy, left the chambers, proceeded to the north, and raised the blacks, ostensibly against General Thomas, but in reality against President Hérard. In an affray with the troops, near St. Marc's, Bazin, with several of his adherents, were shot and cut to pieces. In the capital, with its new name, Port Republican, violence was manifested between president Hérard and the legislative chamber, and he called on the army and the people to decide between the "Hundred Bazins

sitting in the legislative chamber and himself." Meantime, symptoms of the revolt of the Spanish part of Hayti required the immediate energetic action of a bold and able ruler to suppress the insurgents, and to bring the whole island under administrative obedience. As far back as July, 1843, a landowner of San Domingo, named Piméntal, was authorised to state to the British consul, at Port-au-Prince, that the people of the Spanish part, were determined to declare themselves independent of the French part of the island, and that they wished to place themselves under the protection of Great Britain. The offer was very wisely discountenanced by the British consul. Piméntal headed the revolt in San Domingo, in the end of February, 1844, against which President Hérard marched with his whole force. Before he arrived, the Haytian authorities, in the city of San Domingo, were overpowered and imprisoned. Almost simultaneously, Azua, Neivae, St. Jean, L'Escuobas, St. Jago, and Porto Plata, rose in arms against the Haytians. In the end of March, at Azua, 200 to 300 of his troops were killed or wounded. His army in the north was also defeated. Aux Cayes was taken,—Jeremie surrendered to the revolters on the 12th of April,—and on the 3rd of May, the old negro, General Guerrier, was proclaimed president. Hérard gave in his adhesion, the campaign ended, the army retired, and was in part disbanded.

Hérard and Dumésle were banished; but they previously asked the British consul for an asylum on board a British ship of war, which carried them to Jamaica.

Hérard was a brave soldier; but unfitted for the post of president. He hated the democracy and the legislative assembly. The new constitution, divided Hayti into the six departments of the *South, West, Artiboniti, North, Cibao, and Ozama*; these were again divided into arrondissements, and subdivided into communes. Both the constitution, and the divisions, of the country were in imitation of both in France. The great majority of the military officers, and no doubt Hérard, were opposed to the constitution. On its being read, in the presence of the people and the army, the officers came forward in a body, crying loudly, "*A bas la constitution, à bas les préfets*;" at the same time the democratic party made great efforts to substitute a civil for the military government, which had ruled under Boyer for nearly twenty-five years. The political prisoners were liberated by a decree; another decree removed the prohibition of intercourse between Hayti and Jamaica, and the other British possessions. Equal rights were declared to all Haytians, born in Hayti; if descended from Africans, or Indians. The animosity between the blacks and coloured races was still manifested; and this mutual hatred was not extinguished, even by the election of a negro president, in the person of old General Guerrier.

On the 10th of June, 1844, revolts had been so far successful, that the

whole island of Hayti was under four separate authorities or governments. The Haytians were expelled from the Spanish, part by young, and by almost beardless men. On the 12th of July, Santa Anna, the San Domingo general, who had commanded at Azua, entered the city of San Domingo, and was proclaimed supreme chief. Previously to the revolution, he had lived as a private country landed proprietor. He then possessed considerable landed property, most of which he spent in the service of the new republic. He is described as a man of good common sense, of moderate views, no lawyer, and not bred a soldier; yet on taking the command of the insurgent force, he displayed great ability. There is no doubt that Hèrard's conduct, on visiting the towns in the Spanish part, was in many respects arbitrary, and the deputies of the Spanish part were afterwards so greatly disappointed at Port-au-Prince, that on their return, they immediately resorted to arms for their independence: the rapid final defeat of the Haytians followed, with a loss, it is estimated, of nearly 2000, at an expense of 500,000 dollars, and the expulsion of Hèrard from the presidency.

The Spanish part had separated into two, one of which, the north end, under General Duarte, but the latter was soon subdued by Santa Anna, who united the Spanish part, which, it is asserted, now includes at least three-fourths of the whole area of the island. It is, however, the least cultivated: the blacks form but a small proportion of the inhabitants, and the people have lived chiefly on the products of their pastures, and on the sales of mahogany, dyewoods, and hides.

In April, 1845, while the Haytian north-western part of the island was subsiding into some tranquillity, reports arrived from Jamaica, that preparations were making by the ex-president, Hèrard Rivière, to recover the reins of government. This intelligence created great anxiety amongst the mercantile classes. A few days after, the sudden death of President Guerrier seemed the signal for new troubles, if Hèrard should succeed in landing; but the almost unanimous disposition of the inhabitants for peace, saved, for the time, the country from civil war. Pierrot was then seventy years old, and the debt to France, and the independence of the island, rendered his government feeble. Meantime, Hèrard Rivière sailed in a small vessel from Jamaica, and made an abortive attempt to land.

On the 8th of May, President Pierrot made his public entry into Port Republicain. He was received respectfully, but without enthusiasm. It was evident that he was destitute of energy and decision, and on his departure for Cape Haytian, his wavering conduct had alienated the confidence of the inhabitants. He left three of his ministers, in the capital, for administering the affairs of state, and in a few weeks it became evident that parties were only waiting the president's death to commence a civil war.

In addition to all other elements of disturbance, a scandalous waste in the expenditure of the public resources became the cause of great difficulty; the

army alone now costing an annual rate of 3,000,000 dollars, currency: being double the expenditure under the severe Boyer. This corruption and waste arose, in a great degree, from each candidate for the presidency being obliged to satisfy the numerous military and political officers. All the money in the treasury was May, 1845, now expended; paper money was issued, and bankruptcy seemed inevitable.

In September, a decree was promulgated, depriving Haytian citizens of their civil rights in certain cases. The pretence of issuing this decree was, that "several *illegitimate* children of Frenchmen, in Hayti, *obtained* from the French consul certificates of French citizenship."

An insurrectionary movement broke out during the month, in favour of Hérard Rivière, headed by General Pierre Paul: the insurgents were defeated by the government troops, and General Paul, and all the principal revolters, shot. Civil war, however, continued between the Haytians and Dominicans: the former were defeated by the latter, with considerable loss.

The ports of the eastern part of the island were declared by the Haytian government as blockaded. This was little more than a farce. The blockade never could be enforced, and only existed in the printed proclamation. The war between the East and West was continued during the rest of the year, with no decided success, and the Haytian part of the island was involved in all the evils of political and fiscal embarrassments. During the month of February, 1846, the reopening of the campaign against the Dominicans commenced. General dissatisfaction prevailed in the country; and a change of government became probable.

On the 1st of March, another revolution broke out, and General Riché, a negro, about sixty years old, was proclaimed president. He is said to be a man of energy, and he chose as his principal adviser, *General Dupuy*, a very intelligent man: who had been in London in 1843-4, with powers to contract a loan and negotiate. The new government issued an amnesty,—restored the constitution of 1816,—promulgated decrees for the encouragement and protection of commerce and agriculture. The whole Haytian country, except Cape Hayti, submitted to General Riché; and it was anticipated that from the moderation and wisdom, yet energy, of the new president, order would be completely re-established. After some resistance on the part of the ex-president Pierrot, the latter abdicated on the 24th of March. Excesses were, however, committed by the disbanded soldiery, and a disposition manifested in some parts to involve the country in fresh anarchy.

The new president visited several parts of the country, for the purpose of restoring order. The obstacles to the permanence of his government are the financial difficulties, and the disposition of the lower orders, for any change whatever, with the hope of plunder.

On the return of the president (Riché) from the southern parts of Hayti

tranquillity was restored in those districts ; and the whole of the western, or French part of the island was subjected to a state of comparative order. Guided by the advice of M. Dupuy,* the president reformed several local administrations, which were placed on a more economical footing than formerly. Important financial reforms were directed to be immediately executed. A law was passed by the Haytian legislature, reducing the salaries of all public functionaries, civil and military, including the president and his ministers, to one-half for six months. This measure, however necessary, is naturally very unpopular. It was impolitic as far as it extended to the great majority of employés, who never received but a bare maintenance, and have consequently been tempted to resort to dishonest practices ; one result of which has been, that smuggling has prevailed in all the ports of the republic : the high import duties offering a temptation, irresistible to low paid revenue officers.

It appears that there is no disposition on the part of the new president to conquer the eastern, or Dominican part of Hayti ; great wretchedness prevails in those districts, and the barbarous warfare long carried on has only resulted in aggravating misery and poverty on both sides.

The great expenditure of western Hayti is chiefly caused by maintaining the army : during the year 1845-1846, it absorbed, out of the general expenditure of 5,148,724 dollars, the sum of 3,786,329 dollars ; leaving only 1,362,395 dollars for all the other branches of the public service. There are in the Haytian part of the island more than 200 general officers, and about 3000 colonels and other superior officers, all receiving pay.

Agriculture has been so far neglected, and the products so badly prepared that Haytian coffee is in little repute in European markets, from the careless and slovenly way in which it is gathered ; good and bad berries are mixed up with stones and dirt, to add to the weight. When properly cleaned and separated, the coffee of Hayti has always been considered superior to any in the West Indies. This same negligence applies to Haytian cotton, cocoa, and logwood.

Owing to the extravagant expenditure of former governments, the value of paper-money and base coin in circulation amounted, in 1846, to about 8,000,000 of dollars currency ; the value of which dollar being depreciated to one-fourth of the Spanish dollar.

Attention was lately directed to a revision of that part of the constitution which forbids *white* men to hold property in Hayti. We are informed that the most enlightened Haytians are in favour of abolishing this restriction, as injurious to the interests of the country, and disgraceful to their laws ; but it might not be prudent in the government, although they are supposed to be

* We were in communication with General Dupuy, when he was in England ; we found him an able man, who perfectly understood the details and principles of trade. He was many years a partner in the principal British house in Hayti ; and we learn that he is now most desirous to give every encouragement to foreign commerce, but that he meets with much opposition, both in the senate, and also from the absurd prejudices of the great mass of the people. He appeared a much nearer approach in colour and features to the European than even to the Mulatto.

favourable to the naturalisation of foreigners, to offend the prejudiced masses, by creating an apprehension of foreign domination.

President Riché was formerly in favour of substituting a monarchy for the present republican form of government; but since his elevation to the presidency, he has not intimated any desire to realise this change. The present system, while the president rules, is fully as despotic as royalty could be. During the short period that Riché has held the despotic reins of state, he has done much towards clearing the capital of the assassins, thieves, and rabble that have so long infested it. He has also directed that the city shall be cleaned from the filth which pervades it, and that the streets and wharfs shall be repaired.

There are now (at the close of 1846) due three instalments of the indemnity to France amounting to about 4,500,000 francs: the Haytian government is quite unable to liquidate these arrears. Nevertheless, the president and his ministers take every occasion of declaring, both publicly and privately, their anxious desire to fulfil their engagements to France. The French consul-general has proposed that the Haytian government should apportion, annually, a part of the customs revenue towards payment of this indemnity, but it has not been deemed expedient to accede to this proposal. Whether President Riché, guided by the wisdom of General Dupuy, may be successful in extricating Hayti from its present difficulties, and to lay the foundation of future good government and prosperity, will depend very much on their acts; but we fear that more is dependent on the submission to order first, of the numerous military aspirants, and second, to a reform of the turbulent and yet lazy dispositions of the people.

From the day on which Christophe expired, down to the present day, a period of twenty-six years, neither industry, nor improvement, nor energetic administration, nor the extension of the education of the people, nor any progress in the march of civilisation, appears in the agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, moral, social, or political condition of the republic of Hayti. The climate, the soil, and the pastures, yield, almost without culture, sufficient merely to feed a people, too indolent to work for comforts and luxuries. The natural inclination of all mankind, in a rude state, is indolence, and an absence of forecast in providing for the future. But there are races, among which individuals arise with powers of mind, so far superior to that of the communities among which they have been born, that their perceptions have discovered means, for ameliorating the rude state of uninstructed man; and who have, by force of character and wisdom, directed some races, more rapidly than others, into that progress which has formed their advance, by degrees,—from the savage or rude state in which man has, first, subsisted, on the produce of hunting, fishing, and of wild herbs, roots and fruits,—to the pastoral and agricultural state; and, thence, always accompanied, more or less, by both the latter, into the discovery of the more simple arts,

manufactures, and sciences—to the pursuits of navigation, of trade—to learning, intelligence, and to the higher arts and sciences. Self-discipline, and virtue, must necessarily accompany and direct this progress, which is the result caused by the elements of commercial intercourse, of civilisation. Luxury and voluptuousness, arising from the accumulation of wealth, and, as under the Medici, the exercise of despotism,—and the absence of civil liberty and religious freedom, have no doubt pervaded, and in most cases prevailed during, periods of high civilisation. There is no greater fallacy than to confound civilisation with civil liberty. The age of the Medici, and the Borgias, and of Louis XIV., were brilliant epochs of civilisation, of arts, of learning and science: but neither civil liberty, nor religious freedom, existed during those periods in either Italy or France.

Among the rude inhabitants,—the swineherds, and hunters of the German forests, there was almost perfect civil liberty,—in the absence of arts and sciences, and nearly of trade, or manufactures, or any of the elements, which are considered as forming the great framework of civilisation.

Among the Hurons, Iroquois, and other barbarous nations of hunters in North America, there appeared, within each nation, perfect civil liberty.

In luxurious and civilised Mexico, the emperor was absolute, and not to be questioned in his rule: the priests were terrible in their religious domination, and in their sacrifices.

That social and political state of communities, in which the greatest happiness is attained, to which human nature is adapted, can only exist when the people are so thoroughly educated, and of such wise judgment, as to appreciate so thoroughly the blessings of civil liberty and religious freedom, that they, at the same time, make, or consent to, the regulations which restrain one man from perverting that liberty, to the injury of the property, or person, of another man:—that is freedom without anarchy, constituting wise, equal, just, mild, yet energetic government. Under such government, civilisation, in its highest degree, and true civil liberty, and religious freedom, are thoroughly compatible. But such intelligence and such government has never yet existed. The progress of education, the wonderful power of scientific invention, and that celerity and freedom of intercourse between the nations of the earth,—freedom of personal intercourse, and of the interchange of commodities, which navigation and the steam-engine have, during a late period of the world's history, rendered irresistible, will, no doubt, rapidly advance nations towards that state of civilisation and intelligence, and, that civil and religious liberty, which can exist practically and happily together.

But, that there are races and nations, which do not move onward in this progress as rapidly, or as securely, as other races do, is a mere truism. Some nations have made great advances in civilisation, and others have either remained stationary, or have deteriorated. The Chinese appear to us to be exactly in the same state of civilisation as, probably less moral than, when Marco Polo and Duhalde travelled among them.

The Spaniards sent forth bold spirits, and their fleets were powerful, during the fifteenth, sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. Civilisation, however far advanced in Spain, in cities and colleges, and among the Moors, could not pretend to the progress made in Italy and France. Instead of civil liberty and religious freedom, the most tyrannical absolutism, the most horrible ecclesiastical tyranny existed until the death of Ferdinand VII. The only part of the Spanish dominions in which civil liberty existed, were the least civilised; the provinces of Biscay, where the people taxed themselves and managed their own affairs, in virtue of their municipalities and *ayuntamientos*.

Civil liberty and religious freedom has often been proclaimed, but has not distinguished Spain, since the death of Ferdinand. The historical registers of that kingdom, will, from that period, constitute a record of interruptions to all security of person and of property,—of the presence of anarchy, and the absence of good, wise, or intelligent government,—of a continual routine of military executions, imprisonments, and confiscations. During the present day there is no country in which the Spanish language is that of the people, where anarchy, or absolutism, does not prevail; and there is not a railroad completed in any one of them, unless some temporary tram-road, laid down by an Englishman, to convey ore upon, or that constructed by the English and Anglo-Americans in Cuba.

Can we therefore be disappointed at the deplorable result of many and barbarous revolutions, and of the unhappy attempts at self-government in Hayti.

We have heard the success of the experiment extolled, as proving the full capacity for receiving intelligence, and of the wise and able exercises of the highest mental faculties, of the negro race. That natural disposition and capacity may be wonderfully changed and improved, is a truism,—that numerous instances, such as that of Toussaint and Christophe, exist, of extraordinary powers being displayed among them, we admit,—but that the negro race generally are not of great intellectual capacity, and that they are inferior to what some other races have been, or are, in a state of nature, all experience will compel us to admit.

What the destiny of Hayti may be, we will not attempt to determine: further than the revolutions of 1842-3-4-5 and 6, the expulsion of the president Boyer—the atrocities committed by the negroes on the coloured races, the contests and distractions between the former political men of the island,—the insecurity which prevails,—the non-payment of the instalments of indemnity to France,—the neglect of agriculture,—the consequent want of products for trade,—and the lax morals and indolence of the population, are all subjects, when deliberately considered, that do not leave us much good to hope for, in the prospects of Hayti.

CHAPTER IX.

STATISTICS OF HAYTI.

SINCE the expulsion of Boyer, our statistical materials, relative to Hayti, are scarcely in any case more than vague estimates. The trading regulations, and the customs tariff abound in the greatest contradictions and absurdities, fiscally and commercially. The great capabilities, and former commerce of Hayti, will be elucidated by the following tables, prepared by order of the French government:—

GENERAL State of Agriculture and Manufactures in the French Division of St. Domingo, in 1791.

CHIEF JURIS-DICTIONS.	P A R I S H E S.	Sugaries.		Coffee Plantations.	Cotton Plantations.	Indigo Plantations.	Tanneries.	Guldiveries.	Cacao Plantations.	Lime-Kilns.	Brick and Pottery Works.	Negroes employed.
		Clayed.	Brown.									
		No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Northern division.	The Cape.....	{ Le Cap et dépendances.....										
		1	..	2	..	..	1	3	..	2	1	21,613
		{ La petite Ance and the Plaine du Nord.										
		43	7	37	1	5	2	3	..	4	2	11,122
		{ L'acul, Limonade, and Sante Suzanne..										
		52	4	157	3	6	..	9	..	1	1	19,876
	Fort Dauphin..	{ Morien and La Grande Rivière.....										
		35	1	255	2	1	..	5	5	7	..	18,554
		{ Le Dondon et Marmelade.....										
		..	..	216	1	..	..	1	1	32	2	17,376
Western division.	Port de Paix..	{ A Limbé and Port Magot.....										
		22	3	272	5	11	..	7	1	2	2	15,978
	{ The Mole.....	{ Plaisance and Le Borgue.....										
		..	..	324	2	4	..	..	..	3	5	15,018
	Port au-Prince.	{ Fort Dauphin.....										
		29	7	71	2	10	..	4	..	3	8	10,004
		{ Ouanaminthe et Valliere.....										
		25	2	151	..	2	..	4	..	..	3	9,987
	{ Port de Paix le petit St. Louis } Jean Rabel et le gros Morne..	{ Terrier rouge et le trou.....										
		56	1	123	1	37	..	5	..	4	1	15,476
Southern division.	Port au-Prince.	{ Port de Paix le petit St. Louis } Jean Rabel et le gros Morne..										
		6	2	218	9	369	..	4	18	26	4	29,540
		{ The Mole.....										
		..	..	81	14	15	..	..	..	..	..	3,183
	Léogane.....	{ Port-au-Prince and La Croix des Bouquets.....										
		65	75	151	22	15	..	29	1	20	1	48,848
		{ L'Arcahaye ..										
		11	36	62	24	48	..	14	..	23	5	18,553
	St. Marc.....	{ Mirebalais.....										
		3	..	27	19	322	..	..	2	5	..	10,902
		{ Léogane.....										
		27	39	58	18	78	..	25	1	14	1	14,896
Southern division.	Petit Goave....	{ St. Marc, la petite Rivière										
		22	21	298	315	1184	..	10	1	71	12	67,216
		{ Les Verettes and Les Gonaives }										
	Jérémie	{ Le petit Goave, le Grand Goave, et le fonds des Nègres.....										
		11	16	52	25	31	..	11	2	9	..	18,829
		{ L'Anse à Veau and Le petit trou.....										
		6	11	11	7	185	..	7	1	9	2	13,229
	Les Cayes.....	{ Jérémie and Le Cape Dame Marie.....										
		3	5	105	30	44	..	6	25	14	..	20,774
		{ Les Cayes et Torbeck.....										
		24	86	69	76	175	..	18	2	32	8	30,937
Southern division.	Cape Tiburon..	{ Cape Tiburon and Les Côteaux.....										
		1	1	24	12	169	..	..	4	7	1	8,153
		{ St. Louis, Cavaillon et Aquin.....										
		9	23	39	28	157	..	8	2	18	1	18,785
	Jacmel.....	{ Jacmel, les Cayes, et Baynel.....										
		..	1	57	89	129	..	..	3	7	1	21,151
		{ Total.....										
		451	341	2860	705	3097	3	173	69	313	61	480,000
		{ Fifty-one parishes.....										

PRODUCE of St. Domingo Exported to France, from the 1st of January, 1791, to the 31st of December, inclusive.

DEPARTMENTS.	Sugar.		Coffee.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Hides.		Syrup.	Tafia.
	White.	Brown.				In the Raw.	Tanned. (Sides.)		
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	number.	number.	jars.	kegs.
Cape.....	43,864,552	1,517,489	29,367,382	..	195,099	2006	6975	10,654	..
Fort Dauphin	8,609,258	1,639,900	2,321,610	1,200	2,005	1134	160	2,731	..
Port de Paix.....	473,800	824,500	1,829,754	38,752	61,472	120	..	272	25
Mole.....	22,500	105,680	294,550	29,236	6,294	31	..	84	6
Port-au-Prince.....	7,792,219	53,648,923	14,584,023	1,370,021	176,918	1601	752	8,350	36
Léogane.....	1,492,983	7,688,537	1,786,484	154,084	12,520	112	..	95	45
Saint Marc.....	3,244,673	6,993,966	5,521,237	3,008,163	357,530	..	..	73	49
Petit Goave.....	218,866	855,237	1,395,690	84,865	320	..	..	206	6
Jérémie.....	19,804	476,445	4,453,331	189,194	1,075	100	..	..	..
Les Cayes.....	4,375,627	18,984,425	1,843,403	720,770	105,456	67	..	6,938	136
Cape Tiburon.....	63,150	278,500	305,740	34,325	1,954	..	..	99	..
St. Louis.....	2,000	9,600	90,706	42,497	2,064	..	..	..	..
Jacmel.....	48,266	67,910	4,357,270	613,019	7,309	15	..	..	..
Total.....	70,227,698	93,091,112	68,151,180	6,286,126	930,016	5186	7887	29,502	303

HISTORICAL SKETCHES OF HAYTI.

VALUE in Colonial Currency of the Produce Exported from the 1st of January to the 31st of December, 1791.

VALUE in Colonial Currency.					31st of December, 1791.	
ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Average Price.		Value.	Duty paid.	
		livres. sous.		livres.	livres.	
Sugar, white.....lbs.	70,227,708	0	12	67,670,781	2,528,197	
" brown.....do.	93,177,512	0	6	49,041,567	1,677,195	
Coffee.....do.	68,151,180	0	16	51,890,748	1,226,720	
Cotton.....do.	6,286,126	2	0	17,572,252	785,766	
Indigo.....do.	930,016	7	10	10,875,120	465,008	
Cacao.....do.	150,000	0	16	120,000		
Syrup.....jars	29,502	66	0	1,947,132	221,275	
Tafia.....kegs	303	72	0	21,816	1,821	
Hides, tanned.....sides	7,887	10	0	78,870	10,377	
" in the raw.....number	5,186	18	0	93,348	7,807	
Tortoiseshell.....lbs.	5,000	10	0	50,000		
Mahogany and campeech wood..do.	1,500,000			40,000		
Total value in colonial currency.				199,401,634	6,924,166	
Total value in livres tournois....				133,514,423	2,616,011	
Total value in British money....				5,565,600	109,001	

SUMMARY of the Territorial Value of Plantations and Buildings in the French Division of St. Domingo.

PROPERTIES.	Number.	Value of each.	Valuations.		TOTAL VALUE.
			Lands and Buildings.	Negroes and Animals.	
		livres.	livres.	livres.	livres.
Sugaries, white.....	451	230,000	103,730,000		103,730,000
" brown.....	341	180,000	61,380,000		61,380,000
Coffee plantations.....	2,810	20,000	56,200,000		56,200,000
Cotton ".....	703	30,000	21,150,000		21,150,000
Indigo ".....	3,097	30,000	92,910,000		92,910,000
Guildiveries.....	173	5,000	865,000		865,000
Cacao plantations.....	69	4,000	275,000		275,000
Tanneries.....	3	160,000	480,000		480,000
Lime-kilns, brick and pottery works	374	15,000	5,510,000		5,510,000
Old and young negroes.....	455,000	2,500		1,137,500,000	1,137,500,000
Horses and mules.....	16,000	400		6,400,000	6,400,000
Horned cattle.....	12,000	120		1,440,000	1,440,000
Total value of agricultural property			342,500,000	1,145,340,000	1,487,840,000

TRADE of the French Part of St. Domingo with France. Imports for the Year 1788.

NATURE OF GOODS.	Quantity.	Amount in Hispaniola Currency.	NATURE OF GOODS.	Quantity.	Amount in Hispaniola Currency.
	number.	livres.		number.	livres.
Barrels of flour.....	186,759	12,271,247	Brought forward.....	..	33,413,783
Quintals of biscuit.....	1,366	38,684	Baskets of aniseed liquor.....	19,457	254,398
" of cheese.....	3,309	217,450	Quintals of vegetables.....	5,999	322,130
" of wax candles.....	2,044	602,010	Cases of preserved fruit.....	14,613	320,477
" of soap.....	27,154	1,589,985	Quintals of cod fish.....	2,486	85,607
" of tallow candles.....	16,896	1,479,510	" of salt fish.....	1,308	26,700
" of oil.....	20,762	1,973,750	" of butter.....	17,219	1,650,150
" of tallow.....	1,359	55,750	" of salt beef.....	24,261	998,300
Casks of wine.....	121,587	13,610,960	" of salt pork.....	14,732	1,101,395
Cases of wine.....	7,020	584,770	" of salt pork.....	4,351	376,560
Casks of beer.....	5,732	328,175	" of hams.....	1,627	177,340
Hampers of beer.....	6,174	157,380	Dry goods, viz. linens, woollens, silks, cottons, and manufactures of all kinds.....	..	39,008,600
Cases of cordials.....	10,375	340,070	Sundry other articles, valued at....	..	8,685,600
Ankers of brandy.....	6,937	140,238	Amount of all the goods imported.	..	86,410,040
" of vinegar.....	2,284	23,784			
Carried forward.....	..	33,413,783			

These importations were made in 580 vessels, measuring together 189,679 tons, or by average $325\frac{1}{2}$ tons each vessel, viz.:—

224 from Bourdeaux
129 from Nantes
90 from Marseilles
80 from Havre-de-Grace
19 from Dunkirk
11 from St. Malo

10 from Bayonne
5 from La Rochelle
3 from Harfleur
2 from Cherbourg
2 from Croisic

1 from Dieppe
1 from Rouen
1 from Granville
1 from Cette
1 from Rhedon.

Add to the 580 vessels from France, 98 from the coast of Africa, and the French part of Hispaniola will be found to have employed 678 vessels belonging to France in the year 1788.

Foreign Trade in 1788 (exclusive of the Spanish).

Imported by foreigners (Spaniards excepted) to the amount of . . . 6,821,707 livres.
Exported by the same 4,409,922 „

Difference 2,411,785 „

N.B.—This trade employed 763 small vessels, measuring 55,745 tons. The average is 73 tons each. Vessels from North America (American built) are comprehended in it: but there were also employed in the North American trade 45 French vessels, measuring 3475 tons (the average 77 tons each), which exported to North America colonial products, value 525,571 livres.

And imported in return goods to the amount of 465,081 „

Difference 60,490 „

Spanish Trade, in 1788.

259 Spanish vessels, measuring 15,417 tons, or 59 tons each, imported to the amount of (chiefly bullion) 9,717,113 livres.

And exported negro slaves, and goods (chiefly European manufactures), to the amount of 5,587,515 „

Difference 4,129,598 „

N.B.—This is exclusive of the inland trade with the Spaniards, of which there is no account.

NEGROES imported into the French Part of Hispaniola, in 1788.

PORTS OF IMPORTATION.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Amount.	Vessels.
	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.
Port-au-Prince	4,732	2256	764	541	8,293	24
St. Marc.....	1,665	645	230	60	2,600	8
Léogane	1,652	798	469	327	3,246	9
Jérémie.....	88	75	23	18	204	1
Cayes.....	1,624	872	1245	849	4,590	19
Cape François	5,913	2394	1514	752	10,573	37
Total.....	15,674	7040	4245	2547	29,506	98

In 1787, 30,839 negroes were imported into the French part of St. Domingo.

The 29,506 negroes imported in 1788, were sold for 61,936,190 livres (Hispaniola currency), which on an average is 2099 livres, two shillings each, being about 60*l.* sterling.

The foregoing statements exhibit an extraordinary state of prosperity in the French division of San Domingo: that is, for an area less than one-third of the whole island. Toussaint and Christophe, who understood thoroughly the disinclination of the population to agricultural labour, may well be justified for the severity of their rural codes when we compare the San Domingo of 1790 to the island of Hayti in 1846.

TABLE of Exports from Hayti during the Years 1789, 1801, and from 1818 to 1826, both inclusive.

Y E A R S.	Clayed Sugar.	Muscovado Sugar.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Cocoa.	Indigo.	Molasses.	Dye-woods.	Tobacco.	Castor Oil.	Mahogany.	Cigars.	Gum Guaiacum.
	lbs.	lb.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	gallons.	feet.	number.	lbs.
1789.....	47,516,531	93,573,300	76,835,219	7,004,274	..	758,628	25,749	6,768,634	..	..	5,217	..	..
1801.....	16,540	18,518,572	43,420,270	2,480,340	648,518	804	99,419	6,819,300	19,140	121	129,962	..	..
1818.....	198	5,443,567	26,065,200	474,118	434,368	..	..	3,094,409	39,698	711	141,577	..	..
1819.....	157	3,790,143	29,240,919	216,103	370,439	..	..	1,919,748	97,600	157	129,509	..	..
1820.....	2,787	2,514,502	35,137,759	346,839	556,424	..	..	3,728,186	76,400	..	53,005	279,000	7,338
1821.....	..	600,934	29,925,951	820,563	264,792	..	211,927	8,295,080	588,957	..	2,622,277	393,800	13,956
1822.....	..	200,454	24,235,372	592,368	464,154	..	..	6,607,308	387,014	..	2,369,047	175,000	68,692
1823.....	..	14,920	33,802,837	332,256	335,540	..	..	3,858,151	718,679	..	2,181,747	..	..
1824.....	..	5,106	44,269,084	1,028,045	461,694	1,240	..	3,948,190	503,425	..	2,986,469	..	..
1825.....	..	2,020	36,034,300	815,697	339,937	..	..	5,307,745	340,588	..	2,136,984	179,500	..
1826.....	..	32,864	32,189,784	620,972	457,592	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

THE Quantities of the principal Articles Exported from the whole Island during each of the Years 1835 and 1836.

Y E A R S.	Coffee.	Logwood, &c.	Cotton.	Mahogany.	Cocoa.	Tobacco.	Cigars.	Sugar.	Hides.	Old Rags.	Wax.	Ginger.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	feet.	lbs.	lbs.	number.	lbs.	number.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1835.....	48,352,371	13,293,737	1,649,717	5,413,316	397,321	2,086,606	8,500	1,097	24,951	31,192	10,993	8,769
1836.....	37,662,672	6,767,902	1,072,555	4,954,944	550,484	1,222,716	33,000	16,199	14,891	275	15,620	15,509

NOTE.—In 1837 the quantity of coffee was only 30,845,400 lbs., logwood 6,036,238 lbs., cotton 1,013,171 lbs., mahogany 4,798,262 feet. According to official returns the quantity of coffee, exported in 1838 was 49,820,241 lbs., and in 1840 upwards of 50,000,000 lbs.; the returns of the chief articles of export during the intermediate year 1839 being as follows;—coffee 7,889,092 lbs., cotton 1,635,420 lbs., dye-woods 25,946,068 lbs., mahogany 5,933,477 feet, tobacco in leaf 2,102,791 lbs; 31,186 hides.

In 1836, 369 ships of 50,580 tons, and with cargoes worth 474,782*l.* entered, and 395 ships of 52,485 tons, with cargoes worth 921,336*l.* cleared out of the principle port—of the former 4 ships with cargoes worth 192,262*l.*, and of the latter, 99 ships with cargoes worth 367,388*l.*, were British.

RETURN of British and Foreign Trade of Port-au-Prince during the Year ending
31st of December, 1841.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.
	No.	tons	number.	£	No.	tons.	number.	£
British.....	22	3,497	207	94,711	24	4,068	227	90,593
Haytian.....	..		..		2	172	19	2,525
French.....	27	6,204	339	65,892	22	4,982	289	102,585
German.....	15	2,192	153	20,416	13	1,922	132	43,097
Danish.....	5	1,049	54	3,000	5	881	40	13,900
Swedish.....	3	484	31	4,190	3	484	31	8,247
Belgian.....	1	196	14	23,778				
United States.....	72	8,956	582	63,437	75	9,529	599	107,175
Total.....	145	22,580	1380	275,424	144	22,038	1337	368,122

DESCRIPTION.	ARRIVALS.			
	Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value.
		No.	tons.	£
Of the twenty-two British vessels that arrived there were—				
From Great Britain.....	general ballast	15	2373	92,576
" "		4	646	
Total from Great Britain.....		19	3019	92,576
From St. Thomas's.....	general ballast	1	188	2,135
" Trinidad.....		1	150	
" St. Vincent.....	do.	1	142	
Total from other parts.....		3	480	2,135
Total from Great Britain.....		19	3019	92,576
Total.....		22	3499	94,711

DESCRIPTION.	DEPARTURES.			
	Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value.
		No.	tons.	£
Of these twenty-four British vessels that departed there were—				
For Great Britain.....	coffee and cotton	19	3322	70,648
" Leghorn.....	do.	2	276	10,913
" Hamburg.....	do.	3	470	9,032
Total for other parts.....		5	746	19,945
Total for Great Britain.....		19	3322	70,648
Total.....		24	4068	90,593

RETURN of British and Foreign Trade of the Port of Cape Haytien, for the Year ending
31st of December, 1841.

NATIONS.	ARRIVALS.				DEPARTURES.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.
	number.	tons.	number.	£	number.	tons.	number.	£
British	19	2,629	157	29,096	16	2,098	130	32,387
Haytian	3	149	18	1,029	1	42	6	224
French	11	1,997	111	27,082	9	1,543	90	36,536
German	11	1,964	121	22,509	10	1,770	109	51,279
United States.....	40	5,067	210	56,798	42	5,349	221	42,324
Total.....	84	11,806	617	136,484	78	10,802	556	162,770

BRITISH ARRIVALS.		Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value.
From Great Britain with		dry goods.	5	897	£26,823
"	Turks' Island.....	do.	1	90	194
"	"	provisions.	1	53	204
"	Nassau	dry goods.	1	27	140
"	"	ballast.	2	97	
"	St. Thomas	do.	2	422	
"	"	dry goods.	2	128	1,646
"	"	beer.	1	143	16
"	Trinidad	bricks.	1	260	18
"	"	ballast.	2	351	
"	Barbadoes	provisions.	1	161	25
From other parts.....			14	1732	2,243
" Great Britain.....			5	897	26,823
Total.....			19	2629	29,066

BRITISH DEPARTURES.		Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value.
For Great Britain with.....		Coffee, &c.	5	890	£20,022
"	"	logwood.	2	410	1,828
For Great Britain....			7	1300	21,850
"	Nassau	logwood.	4	214	630
"	St. Thomas.....	coffee.	1	58	866
"	Turks' Island	do.	1	53	185
"	Halifax	do.	1	70	560
"	Antwerp.....	do.	1	143	5,303
"	Hamburg	do.	1	260	2,993
For other parts			9	798	10,537
" Great Britain.....			7	1300	21,850
Total.....			16	2098	32,387

RETURN of British and Foreign Trade of Port Gonaives for the Year ending the 31st of December, 1841.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crew.	Invoice Value.
	number.	tons.	number	£	number.	tons.	number.	£
British.....	13	1986	109	1,399	12	1795	97	18,353
French.....	10	1912	102	3,505	10	1912	102	14,654
Danish.....	1	150	8	..	1	160	10	9,684
Hamburg.....	1	276	13	284	2	426	21	3,787
United States.....	30	4764	228	9,970	27	4228	203	32,356
Total.....	55	9088	460	15,158	52	8521	433	78,864

BRITISH ARRIVALS.		Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value.
From Great Britain.....		dry goods.	3	523	£802
"	Nassau, N. P.....	hardware.	1	44	78
"	"	crocery.	1	16	97
"	St. Thomas.....	dry goods.	2	255	418
"	"	ballast.	3	536	
"	Demerara.....	dry goods.	1	277	4
"	Barbadoes.....	ballast.	1	171	
"	Trinidad.....	do.	1	164	
From other parts.....			10	1463	597
" Great Britain.....			3	523	802
Total.....			13	1986	1399

BRITISH DEPARTURES.	Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value.
For Great Britain.....	Coffee, &c.	1	176	£3,127
" "	mahogany.	4	700	8,476
" "	do. and coffee.	1	200	1,795
" "	machinery and do.	1	134	1,186
For Great Britain.....		7	1210	14,584
" Nassau.....	coffee.	1	44	225
" "	logwood.	1	16	64
" Boston.....	coffee and machinery.	1	191	1,246
" Demerara	do.	1	277	2,064
" St. Thomas.....	coffee.	1	57	170
For other parts		5	585	3,769
" Great Britain		7	1210	14,584
Total.....		12	1795	18,353

EXPORTS from the Republic during 1840 and 1841.

PRODUCTS.	1840	1841	PRODUCTS.	1840	1841
Coffee.....lbs.	g. 46,126,272	g. 34,114 717	Maize	g. 6	g. 84
Cocoa	do. 442,365	do. 640,616	Starch	do. 147	do. 72
Tobacco-leaf	do. 1,725,389	do. 3 219,690	Pimento	do. 178½	do. 177
Campeachy wood	do. 39,283,205	do. 45,071,391	Ignames.....	do. 2	do. ..
Cotton	do. 922,575	do. 1,591,454	Cane mats	dozen 296 7-12	dozen 319 8-12
Raw sugar	do. 741	do. 1,363	Cassavas.....	do. 6	do. ..
Gum guaiacum.....	do. 15,511	do. 9,506	Kid leather.....	do. 1	do. 20
Yellow wax	do. 19,862	do. 43,413	Live oxen.....	do. 53	do. 28
Tortoise shell	do. 1,754	do. 2,052	Pigs	do. 17	do. 22
Horns of cattle.....	do. 16,251	do. 19,178	Coco nuts	number 400	number 1,345
Cassia fistula	do. 3,190	do. 18,874	Bananas	pieces 11,290	pieces 7,025
Ginger.....	do. 8,136	do. 15,822	Sugar-canes.....	number 350	number 350
Rags	do. 37,292	do. 44,596	Tamarinds.....	barrel 44	barrel ..
Syrup of battora	do. 196,699	do. 2,712	Lemons.....	lbs. 2	lbs. 8
Mahogany	feet 4,072,641 12	feet 6,009,632½	Saltpetre.....	do. 6,774	do. 44,307
Hides	number 39,627	number 27,126	Liqueurs	case 13	case ..
Cigars	do. 313,100	do. 728,650	Rum	barrel ..	barrel 20
Syrup of honey	gallon 848	gallon 927	Castor oil	gallon ..	gallon 265
Taffia	barrel 252	barrel 110½	Avocats	barrel ..	barrel 4
Oranges	do. 19	do. 10	Mangos	do. ..	do. 4
Pease.....	do. 98	do. 14	Pineapples.....	do. ..	do. 1

PRODUCTS Exported from Port-au-Prince.

ARTICLES.	1840	1841	ARTICLES.	1840	1841
Coffee.....lbs.	21,656,814	15,898,884	Cigars.....	No. 84,200	No. 247,750
Cotton.....	do. 784,077	do. 1,175,180	Cassia fistula.....	lbs. 3,190	lbs. 18,343
Cocoa.....	do. 109,810	do. 248,925	Ginger.....	do. 6,901	do. 15,181
Raw sugar.....	do. 741	do. 300	Cane mats.....	doz. 296 7-12	doz. 319 8-12
Campeachy wood.....	do. 10,613,046	do. 11,429,950	Rags.....	lbs. 36,300	lbs. 44,566
Mahogany.....	feet 1,242,831 8-12	feet 1,515,779 9-12	Yellow wax	do. 4,693	do. 8,270
Tortoiseshell	lbs. 1,323½	lbs. 1,793	Gum Guaiacum.....	do. 184	do. 959
Hides.....	No. 2,115	No. 2,143	Saltpetre.....	do. 6,692	do. 40,536
Horns of cattle.....	lbs. 2,811	lbs. 12,028	Lignum vitæ.....	do.	do. 12,841
Leaf tobacco.....	do. 201,197	do. 271,817	Castor oil.....	do.	do. 265

MEMORANDUM ON THE TRADE OF HAYTI DURING 1841.—There is a remarkable falling off in the trade of Hayti during the year 1841, when compared with the preceding year. This decrease may be accounted for, as arising from various causes, but chiefly from the deficiency in the coffee crop and the very great importations of 1840.

The necessary limitation of credit, which the merchants find indispensable to their interests, in consequence of the enormous debts already due by the country, may be cited as another influential cause of the decrease of commercial activity. It may also be remarked that the general poverty of the inhabitants, and the depreciation of the currency have both contributed towards lessening the demand for better description of goods, and have caused the substitution of those of a cheaper and coarser kind. British and German trade is sensibly affected by this change, whilst that with France suffers still more, there being but little demand for silks, cambrics, and wines. The American trade is carried on with some activity, but is far from being profitable to those engaged in it.

There is a considerable decrease (upwards of 12,000,000 lbs.) in the export of coffee—that amount being about *one-fourth* of the average crop. The value of the exportation

of this article, the staple produce of Hayti, is annually decreasing, owing to large supplies of coffee being now imported by European markets, from Brazil.

The export of cotton remains much the same, varying from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000lbs.; nor has the mahogany trade undergone any great variation during the last four or five years. There is, however, a falling off in the export of logwood, caused by its low value in Europe, and by the high rates of duty still maintained on its exportation.

Tobacco has of late years been much cultivated in the north-eastern parts of Hayti, and has well repaid the care bestowed upon it.

STATEMENT of the Receipt and Expenditure of the Republic of Hayti, during the Year 1837.

RECEIPT.	Amount.	EXPENDITURE.	Amount.
	dollars.		dollars.
Duties on importation.....	701,166	Supply of provisions.....	21,354
— consignment.....	43,106	— clothing and equipment.....	63,543
— exportation.....	409,435	Works and public edifices.....	37,942
Territorial imposts.....	462,028	Salaries of civil officers.....	391,290
Weighing and wharfage.....	64,167	— military officers.....	182,934
Tax on slaughter-houses farmed out.....	61,351	Wages.....	1,163,816
— Demesnes farmed out.....	25,256	Arsenals.....	5,495
“ Valeur locative”.....	4,522	Hospitals.....	14,771
Land-tax.....	1,758	Marine.....	17,838
Stamps.....	54,027	Repayment of lodging money.....	10,086
Patents.....	82,003	— rations.....	132,408
Registry and mortgages.....	36,730	National debt.....	536,305
1.66 $\frac{2}{3}$ dollars, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.....	5,583	Unforeseen expenses.....	100,000
Sale of demesnes.....	10,663	Ditto.....	35,000
Various extraordinary receipts.....	120,714	Ditto.....	314
Total.....	2,082,522	Total.....	2,713,102
		Expenses of government.....	2,084,983
		National debt.....	536,305
		Notes burned.....	91,813
		Total.....	2,713,102
	dollars.		dollars.
Details of the excess per annum;—		Balance December 31, 1 36.....	984,653
Money, foreign.....	755,765	General receipts.....	2,082,522
— national.....	282,921	Notes issued.....	785,400
	1,038,686	Total.....	3,852,576
Funds remitted to various chests.....	100,787		
Balance on Dec. 31, 1837.....	1,139,474	Balance December 31, 1837.....	1,139,474

REVENUE from all Sources during the Years 1840 and 1841.

PORTS.	1840		1841		Increase.		Decrease.	
	g.	c.	g.	c.	g.	c.	g.	c.
Port-au-Prince.....	1,290,957	20	988,335	76	..	..	302,621	44
Jeremie.....	51,987	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	52,566	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	578	43	54,223	44
Cayes.....	471,799	24	417,575	80	..	..	26,848	45
Jacmel.....	203,618	74	176,770	29	..	..	84,702	88 $\frac{1}{2}$
Gonaives.....	154,890	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	156,078	40	1188	7 $\frac{1}{2}$		
Cape Haitien....	556,644	97 $\frac{1}{2}$	471,942	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	..		
Porte-Plate.....	76,539	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	107,849	49 1-12	31,309	77 4-12		
Saint-Domingo.....	119,587	47	139,434	10	19,846	63		
Total.....	2,926,025	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,510,551	99 1-12	52,922	91 1-12	468,396	21 $\frac{1}{2}$
Deducting.....	2,510,551	99 1-12	..	..	..	..	52,922	91 1-12
							415,473	30 2-12

Decrease in the year 1841 compared with the year 1840

CUSTOMS REVENUES.

DESCRIPTION.	1840		1841.	
	gs.		gs.	
Duties on imports.....	914,529	39 8-12	678,005	92 2-12
— consignments.....	33,509	52 7-12	22,018	93 4-12
— exports.....	665,169	70 6-12	603,121	54 7-12
Transit Duties.....	738,204	54 1-4	649,448	73 5-12
Charge for weighing and wharfage.....	125,925	15 11-12	118,790	36
Total.....	2,477,338	33 11-12	2,071,385	49 6-12
	2,071,385	49 6-12		
Diminution of the customs revenue during 1841...	405,952	84 5-12		

GENERAL EXPENDITURE.

P O R T S.	1840		1841		Increase.		Decrease.	
	g.	c.	g.	c.	g.	c.	g.	c.
Port-au-Prince.....	1,549,852	80	1,784,438	44	234,585	64		
Jeremie.....	81,093	28½	61,802	14	..	..	19,291	14½
Cayes.....	238,890	71	216,839	68	..	..	22,051	3
Jacmel.....	103,481	1	91,687	18	..	..	11,793	83
Gonaives.....	106,336	54½	83,189	63	..	..	23,146	91½
Cape Haitien.....	453,520	79½	329,054	3½	..	..	124,466	75½
Porte-Plate.....	69,771	4 5-12	55,778	74	..	..	13,992	30 5-12
Saint Domingo.....	172,415	19½	143,794	8	..	..	28,621	11½
Total.....	2,775,361	37 5-12	2,766,583	92½	234,585	64	243,363	8 11-12
Deducting.....	2,766,583	92 6-12	..	..	..	..	234,585	64
Decrease of the General Expenditure of 1841 compared with that of 1840 was								8,777 44 11-12

By comparing the Expenditure of 1840 and 1841 in the following table the difference is remarkable :

Y E A R S.	National Debt.		Bank Notes.		Expenses of the Interior.	
	g.	c.	g.	c.	g.	c.
1840.....	554,091	64	218,030	0	2,003,239	73 5-12
1841.....	785,217	44	179,623	0	1,801,743	48½
Balance in hand in the treasury of the republic, in 1840.....					1,580,826	66 8-12
General receipts in 1841.....					2,510,551	99 1-12
Bank notes issued during the year.....					670,800	
Total.....					4,762,178	65 9-12
Expenses of the interior during the year 1841.....			1,801,743	48½		
National debt sinking fund.....			785,217	44		
Bank notes destroyed.....			179,623			
					2,766,583	92 6-12

BALANCE in hand, in the Treasury, of the Republic on the 31st of December, 1841.

P L A C E S.	Foreign Specie.	National Specie.	TOTAL.
	g.	g.	g.
Gross amount in hand.....	1,028,315 15	553,180	
Treasury of Port-au-Prince.....		130,622 81	
" Jeremie.....	4,737 21	6,813 31½	
" Cayes.....	5,212 2	59,341 62	
" Jacmel.....	7,023 50	31,021 81	
" Gonaives.....	4,620 94½	24,653 92	
" Cape Haitien.....		14,993 28½	
" Porte-Plate.....	9,282 78	19,596 82 8-12	
" St. Domingo.....	9,719 89	123,06 91	
Envois de fonds et mandats à régler.....			1,921,441 98 11-12
Total.....			74,152 74 4-12
			1,995,594 73 3-12

GOVERNMENTS OF ST. DOMINGO AND OF HAYTI, *December, 1846.*—In Domingo, or the Spanish part, Santa Anna, has published a constitution. It declares the limits of the republic to be the boundary of 1793—as appertaining to Spain. It declares the government to be *civil* not *military*, republican, popular, representative, elective, and responsible. The territory to be divided into five provinces: 1. Ampastella de Azun; 2. Santo Domingo; 3. Santa Cruz del Seybo; 4. La Concepcion de la Vija; 5. Santiago de los Cabelleros. These provinces to be divided into communes. Citizenship is extended nearly to all—even to foreigners who pay a fixed amount of *taxes*. Sovereignty is vested in all the *citizens*. The executive is a president, with a legislative assembly, and council. In HAYTI President Riché has proclaimed the constitution of 1816, which is that already described as merely a transcript of that of France, with the exception of president for king, and *republic* for kingdom.

TONNAGE DUTIES.

HAYTI.—The tonnage duty heretofore exacted on foreign vessels, at one dollar Spanish per ton, is increased to two dollars Spanish per ton (consequently, American vessels pay two dollars and twenty cents per ton).

All foreign vessels, going from one port to another in this island, will pay for each port visited an additional duty of 100 dollars, Haytien currency, on vessels under 150 tons.

Vessels from 150 to 200 tons, pay 150 dollars.

Vessels of 200 tons and upwards, pay 200 Haytien dollars.

The duties on wharfage and weighage, on merchandise *imported*, are increased to double their former rates.

The "territorial" duty on exports is still in force; but the duty of exportation is reduced, which reduces the export duty on coffee from twenty dollars, Haytien currency, per 1000 lbs., to twelve dollars.

Cocoa from ten dollars to four, per 1000 lbs.

Tobacco, in leaf, from fifteen dollars per 1000 lbs., to five dollars.

Logwood, from seven dollars per 1000 lbs., to two dollars.

Mahogany, from twenty-two dollars to twelve dollars per 1000 feet.

Hides of all kinds are free of export duty.

The wharfage, and the weighage and measuring are to be added to the foregoing, as follows:

On coffee,	one dollar, Haytian currency.
On cocoa,	" "
On tobacco,	" "
On logwood,	" "
On mahogany,	" "
Hides are charged	one cent, Haytian, each.

The present value of a Haytian dollar is two-fifths of a Spanish or American silver dollar, or sixty per cent below their par.

SAN DOMINGO.—Foreign vessels to pay one gourde or dollar in silver per ton, about 4s. 3d. sterling. Those taking on board mahogany or other cargoes the produce of the soil.

DESCRIPTION.	Tonnage Duty.
	dollars.
From 10 to 50 tons.....per vessel	250
" 51 to 100 do.....do.	400
" 101 to 200 do.....do.	600
" 201 to 300 do.....do.	900
" 301 and upwards.....do.	1500

CHAPTER X.

SPANISH WEST INDIES.

SPAIN, notwithstanding the revolt and independence of her east possessions on the continent of North and South America, still possesses fertile and magnificent insular colonies, in the western hemisphere.

The Abbé Raynal observes, in describing Cuba,—

"This, one of the largest islands in the world, served as the entrepôt of a great trade. It is regarded as the *boulevard* of the New World, and it has important productions. Under these aspects it merits serious attention.

"Cotton is the production, which may be naturally increased with profit in this island. At the time of its conquest it was very generally grown; now it has become so rare, that for years none of it has been exported.

"Although the Spaniard has an aversion, almost insurmountable, to imitate others, he has adopted in Cuba the culture of coffee; but in transplanting this production from foreign colonies, he did not imitate the activity which renders it valuable.

"Sugar, the most important production of the West Indies, would alone suffice to extend prosperity to Cuba; but the Spaniards have only a small number of plantations, where their best canes yield only a small quantity of inferior sugar.

"Spain possesses by far the most extensive and fertile part of the West Indian Islands. In active hands their islands would become the source of riches without limits; in their present state they are frightful solitudes.

"It would be calumniating the Spaniards to believe them incapable, by character, of laborious and painful industry. If we consider the excessive fatigues, which are so patiently endured by those, of this nation, who follow the contraband trade, it is evident they endure much greater hardship and fatigue than is experienced in rural industry. If the Spaniards neglect to enrich themselves by labour, it is the fault of their government."

Such was the state of Cuba about sixty years ago.

The colonies still possessed by Spain in America, are the magnificent and fertile islands of Cuba and Porto Rico.

CHAPTER XI.

CUBA.

CUBA is situated between the latitude of 19 deg. 50 min. north, and 23 deg. 12 min. north, and between the meridians of 74 deg. 8 min. west, and 84 deg. 58 min. west longitude. Its extreme length, following the centre, is calculated by some at 800 miles, by others, at not 700 miles. Its breadth varies from 20 to 130 miles. The area of this magnificent island is stated by Humboldt to be 3615 square leagues, or 32,535 geographical square miles. Mr. Turnbull's calculation is 31,468 square miles; that of its dependencies; viz., the Isle of Pines, 865; Turignano, 38; Romano, 172; Guajaba, 15; Coco, 28; Cruz, 59; Paredon Grande, 11; Barril, 13; De Puerto, 9; Eusenachos, 19; Frances, 14; Largo and other minor isles, 96; total, 32,807 square miles. If the latter is calculated as English statute miles there is a great discrepancy between the two estimates. We are inclined to believe in the correctness of Humboldt, as calculated in marine leagues, of twenty to the degree; viz., 220 marine leagues, in its extreme length, equal to 660 geographical miles, or $764\frac{1}{2}$ British statute miles.

The coasts of Cuba are generally surrounded with reefs and shallows, within which are low sandy beaches in many parts, or more generally a slip of very low land, frequently overflowed by the sea, and nearly always wet and heathy. The lagoons, within the beaches and sands, yield a good deal of sea-salt. There are, however, many excellent harbours.

A cordillera of calcareous mountains extends from one end of the island to the other. Its soil is generally fertile, except where the limestone rocks protrude over the surface. The forests of Cuba are still of great extent. Mahogany, and other useful woods, are among the large indigenous trees. Palm-trees and plantains are abundant. Maize is indigenous. Only one small animal, the Hutia, has ever been known as indigenous. As to its mineralogy, its copper mines are by far the most valuable. Coal, which is highly bituminous, follows next. Asphaltum, marble, and jasper abound. It is doubtful whether there were ever any gold or silver mines worked in this island. That found among the natives, is now supposed to have been collected by washing the sands, and accumulated during ages by them.

In agriculture, especially in the cultivation of sugar and coffee, the inhabitants of Cuba, aided by slave labour, have made great progress since the year 1809, when the trade of this island was emancipated from the restriction of trading to no foreign country whatever. The administration of Cuba has, since that period, published, with apparently great care, official returns of the population, agriculture, revenue, and trade of the colony. These returns, made under the direction of Don Rama de Sagra, were commenced during the administrations of the Captain-general Don Francis Denis Vives, and of the Superintendent-general Conde de Villanueva. We have from these returns formed the condensed tables which follow.

Population of Cuba.—The census of 1775, gave a population of 170,370; that of 1791 gave 272,140; that of 1817 gave 551,998; and that of 1827 gave 704,487 inhabitants; viz., whites, 168,653 males and 142,398 females; total whites, 311,051. Free coloured and negroes, 51,962 males, 54,532 females; slaves, 183,290 males, 103,652 females.

STATEMENT of the White, and Free, and Slave-Coloured Population, in each of the Departments of the Island of Cuba, in the year 1841.

DEPARTMENTS.	Cities & Towns.	Villages.	Hamlets.	Rural Districts.	W H I T E S.			F R E E.		S L A V E S.		GRAND TOTAL.
								Co- loured.	Ne- groes.	Co- loured.	Ne- groes.	
					Males.	Females.	TOTAL.	TOTAL.	TOTAL.	TOTAL.	TOTAL.	
Western department.....	9	89	62	90	135,079	108,944	244,023	25,280	41,183	5,885	315,389	631,760
Central department.....	6	6	34	88	60,035	53,838	113,873	21,294	10,285	2,849	47,307	195,608
Eastern department.....	7	13	..	101	32,030	28,365	60,395	41,480	13,316	2,240	62,825	180,256
Total.....	22	108	96	279	227,144	191,147	418,291	88,054	64,784	10,974	425,521	1,007,624

Of the free coloured 43,658 were males, 44,396 females. Of the free negroes 32,145 were males, 32,739 females. Of the slave coloured 5868 were males, 5106 females. Of the slave negroes 275,382 were males, and only 150,139 females. Total free population, 571,129. Total slaves, 436,495. Excess of free over slave population 134,634.

There is a garrison of several battalions, and a small marine force.

Agricultural Returns.—In 1830, of the 468,523 caballerias of thirty-two English acres of land, which compose the whole territory, 38,276 were under sugar, coffee, tobacco, garden, and fruit cultivation, and 9734 in grazing-grounds, and in unfelled woods belonging to sugar and coffee estates.

	caballerias.
There were under sugar-cane plantations	5394
„ coffee-trees	5761
„ tobacco	1389
In lesser, or garden and fruit, cultivation	25,732
Total caballerias	38,276
Total acres	1,224,832

It appears that there was an area of 430,247 caballerias, or 13,767,904 acres uncultivated in the whole island; some parts of which were appropriated to rearing and fattening animals, others to settlements or towns, and the remainder occupied by mountains, roads, coasts, rivers, and lakes; but the greater part were absolute wilds. The value of lands vested as private real property has been estimated as follows:—

	dollars.
32,857 caballerias in grazing grounds, for larger and for smaller cattle, and attached to Halos and Cerrales, at 100 dollars	3,285,700
10,752 ditto in grazing grounds, attached to estates, with enclosures, at 1000 dollars	10,952,000
15,300 ditto in sugar estates, at 1500 dollars	22,950,000
9,200 ditto coffee estates	13,800,000
20,732 ditto in smaller cultivation, provisions, &c., at 2000 dollars	41,464,000
2778 ditto in tobacco, at 700 dollars	1,944,600
Total value of lands in 1830	94,396,300 dollars.

Those under cocoa or cotton, are supposed to be included in the above.

The buildings, engines, materials of labour, and other utensils of country estates, were estimated in value as follows:

	dollars.
On the wild pastures	1,737,000
On pasture or grazing attached to estates	619,600
On sugar estates	28,835,000
On coffee estates	20,000,000
On smaller cultivation	2,789,400
On tobacco plantations	622,850
Total value of buildings, utensils, &c., 1830	55,603,850 dollars.

The value of the different products of cultivation were valued as follows, viz.,

	dollars.
Sugar-canes in the ground	6,068,877
Coffee-trees	32,500,000
Fruit-trees, vegetables, &c., of smaller estates	41,464,000
The same on the larger estates	5,476,700
Tobacco plants	340,620
Total value of plants in 1830	85,850,197 dollars.

	dollars.
The value of the wood exported in 1830 was . . .	155,563
Ten times the quantity exported was consumed on the island . . .	1,555,630
The charcoal consumed has been valued at . . .	2,107,300

Total annual value of the produce of woods . . . 3,818,493 dollars.

The minimum value of the forests of the island of Cuba was estimated in 1830 to be equal to 190,624,000 dollars.

Value of slaves in 1830 ; viz.,

	dollars.
100,000 slaves in sugar and coffee estates, at 300 dollars . . .	30,000,000
31,055 ditto in smaller cultivation	9,316,500
7,927 ditto in tobacco	2,378,100

Total value of 138,982 slaves, supposed useful, at 300 dollars . . . 41,694,600 dollars.

The others being old or supposed of little or no value.

Value of live stock ; viz.,

	dollars.
1,058,732 beeves and 893,538 hogs existing in the original grazing grounds . . .	21,282,077
140,539 oxen for labour and hauling	7,026,950
186,973 horses, supposing 20,000 employed in other private uses, separate from estates	9,348,650
9642 mules and asses, deducting 10,000 which may be found in other occupations	772,360
46,962 sheep, goats, &c.	187,848
1,000,000 domestic breeding birds	1,000,000

Total value of animals 39,617,885 dollars.

RECAPITULATION.

	dollars.
Lands	94,396,300
Plants, including the forests	276,774,367
Buildings, engines, and utensils	54,603,850
Slaves	41,694,600
Animals	39,618,885

Representative value of agriculture 507,088,002 dollars.

Representative value of the capital invested . . . 317,264,832 dollars.

VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS.

	dollars.
8,091,837 arrobas of sugar, white and brown . . .	8,091,837
81,545 „ of inferior do.	40,772
35,103 hogsheds of molasses	262,932
2,883,528 arrobas of coffee	4,325,292
23,806 „ of cocoa	74,890
38,142 „ of cotton	125,000
500,000 „ of tobacco in the leaf	687,240
520,897 „ of rice	454,230
165,659 „ of beans, peas, garlic, onions . . .	257,260
1,617,806 fanegas (nearly a barrel) of maize . . .	4,853,418

Carried forward 19,172,871

Brought forward	. . .	19,172,871
4,051,245 horseloads of vegetables and fruits	. . .	11,475,712
2,793,308 of grapes	. . .	5,586,616
36,535 horseloads of casada	. . .	146,144
2,107,300 bags of charcoal	. . .	2,107,300
woods, or the products of woods	. . .	1,741,195
Total value of vegetable productions	. . .	40,229,838 dollars.

ANNUAL VALUE OF ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.

	dollars.
180,289 beeves, slaughtered	3,605,780
equal number of hides	180,289
269,211 pigs	1,346,055
60,000 calves, colts of all kinds	1,200,000
30,000 animals giving wool	120,000
1,953,120 domestic birds	976,560
29,952 thousands of eggs	1,060,800
592,800 jars of milk	296,400
63,160 arrobas of virgin wax	189,480
76,404 „ of honey	47,752
Total value of animal productions	9,023,116 dollars.
	dollars.
Vegetable productions	34,629,868
Animal do.	9,023,116
Total gross produce of agriculture	43,652,984

ESTIMATED NET RENT OF AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL INDUSTRY.

	dollars.
Net produce of the primitive grazing grounds	2,928,405
„ of the grazing grounds of estates	2,169,161
„ of sugar estates	4,189,043
„ of coffee estates	1,287,375
„ of smaller cultivation	11,861,984
„ of tobacco	372,654
Total net product	22,808,622 dollars.

GENERAL RECAPITULATION.

	dollars.	sterling.
Representative value of the agriculture of Cuba	508,189,332	£101,637,866
„ of capital invested	317,264,832	63,490,593
„ of gross products	49,662,987	9,932,597
„ of net rents	22,808,622	4,561,724

CAPITALS INVESTED.

	dollars.	dollars.
1. Grazing grounds of all kinds, cost	24,149,417	produce 5,051,835
2. Sugar estates	83,780,877	„ 8,862,087
3. Coffee estates	85,825,000	„ 4,325,292
4. Vegetable and fruit plantations	111,861,984	„ 24,867,638
5. Tobacco plantations	6,532,420	„ 681,240
6. Menageries	26,767,977	„ 5,051,836

We have no accounts of the present extent of cultivation in Cuba; but by comparing the value of exportable produce of 1830 with that of 1842, and by various estimates, we consider it probable that the lands under sugar, coffee, tobacco, and gardens, may fairly be estimated at 54,000 caballerias, or 1,728,000 acres. In 1840 the number of persons engaged in agriculture were, on 1238 sugar estates, 138,701 persons; on 1838 coffee plantations, 114,760 persons; and on 42,549 farms, 393,993 persons. Total number employed in agriculture, 647,454 labourers.

If we compare this extent with the remaining vast area of the fertile soils of Cuba, which are still uncultivated, and the produce which the whole island at present yields, it can scarcely be an exaggeration to say, that Europe might draw as much coffee and sugar from Cuba alone as the quantity at present consumed. But the process of reclaiming the forests and waste lands must necessarily be slow, even by slave labour; for that labour must not only be hereafter more limited, but it would appear from the returns of free labour in Porto Rico, and from the Prize Essay lately approved of in Jamaica, that free labour is cheaper than slave labour.

In 1760, the produce of coffee and sugar together, in Cuba, only amounted to about 5,000,000 lbs. Forty years afterwards the produce of both increased to above 40,000,000 lbs. In 1820, the exports increased to above 100,000,000 lbs.; and since that period the increase will appear by referring to the tables of the trade of Cuba, which follow. In 1800, there were, according to Don Sagra, but eighty coffee farms and plantations; in 1817, they increased to 780; in 1827, to 2067; at present it is estimated to above 3000. Tobacco is indigenous, and the best quality is grown, but it is said not to be profitable to the planter. In 1826, the exports of cigars amounted to 197,194 lbs.; in 1837, to 792,438 lbs. The culture of cotton and indigo is on the decline. Maize, rice, and plantains are abundantly grown, also potatoes and some wheat. Mr. Turnbull says, that burning the wood on the ground to be cleared deteriorates the soil: in North America, and even in Old Spain, it is burned to fertilise the soil. There is one railroad constructed; the common roads are very bad.

CHAPTER XII.

CUSTOMS DUTIES AND REGULATIONS OF CUBA.

THE customs and fiscal system of Cuba has been greatly improved since 1809. Differential duties on cargoes in Spanish and in foreign ships are, however, maintained.

IMPORT DUTIES.

The rate of duty charged on the importation of foreign produce and manufactures, in foreign bottoms, are $24\frac{1}{4}$ and $30\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on valuations attached to each article in the tariff, excepting flour, hogs, and tarred cordage, which pay a fixed duty; and as a general

rule, although there are a few exceptions, foreign produce and manufactures in Spanish bottoms, from a foreign port, pay $17\frac{1}{4}$ and $21\frac{1}{4}$, and Spanish produce and manufactures in foreign bottoms, from a Spanish port, pay the same; and foreign produce and manufactures in Spanish bottoms, direct from the Peninsula, pay $13\frac{3}{4}$ and $16\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

Spanish produce and manufactures (except flour, which pays 10s. sterling per barrel), imported in Spanish bottoms, direct from the Peninsula, pay $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on the valuation in the tariff, but after having touched in any foreign port, they pay duty as if shipped from that port.

EXPORT DUTIES.

The produce of Cuba pays export duty at the following rates:

Foreign flag, for any port, $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent upon the valuation of tariff.

Spanish flag, for a foreign port, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent ditto.

Spanish flag, for a Spanish port, $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent ditto.

Except leaf tobacco, which pays $12\frac{1}{2}$, $6\frac{1}{4}$, and $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, according to the flag and destination; and clayed sugar, which pays 1s. 1d. sterling per 100 lbs. in foreign bottoms, and 11½d. sterling in Spanish bottoms; whilst rum, tafia, swine, horses, mules, horned cattle, cigars, and molasses pay the same duty in all cases.

On the total amount of all duties an additional 1 per cent is levied, under the denomination of "deucho de borlanza," and of late years an additional impost of one-seventh of the amount of duties has been added, to meet the expenses of the late war, except on the import of Spanish flour and the export of sugar, coffee, molasses, leaf tobacco, and cigars, which have had a fixed additional duty imposed.

Foreign flour remains untouched, the old duty amounting nearly to a prohibition.

On all bottled liquors there is a deduction made of 5 per cent on the duties, as a compensation for breakage; and on earthenware and glass 6 per cent for the same cause.

On jerked beef, from Buenos Ayres and Brazils, 14 per cent; from the United States and Campeachy 6 per cent is allowed for waste and damage.

There is also a small impost on imported liquors, to meet the expenses of the "casa de beneficencia" of the Havanna, at the rate of 2s. sterling per pipe, 1s. per cask or hogshead, 6d. per demijohn, and 6d. per dozen bottles.

Coffee pays an additional municipal duty of about 13d. sterling per 100 lbs.

Gold and silver, of the proper standard, when properly manifested and reported, may be imported free of duty, otherwise 4 per cent is levied. Gold pays an export duty of $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, and silver one of $2\frac{1}{4}$, but the duty is generally evaded, although at the risk of seizure both of specie and vessel.

Foreign agricultural implements and machinery, in foreign bottoms, pay $24\frac{1}{4}$ per cent *ad valorem*; but steam-engines for the use of the mines, ploughs, stallions, mares, rice-mills, and all implements for the manufacture of sugar, may be imported free of duty.

Cotton, green fruits, tobacco stems, syrup, and lime juice are exported duty free.

Sugar, coffee, cotton, tobacco in leaf, and cigars, air-guns, daggers, pocket-pistols, knives with points, and obscene prints, are not allowed to be imported; and books and printed papers generally are subject to the inspection of a censor before leaving the custom-house.

Gunpowder and muskets are the only goods allowed to be deposited at St. Jago de Cuba, and as the slave-trade falls off so does the deposit of these articles. The Havanna is the only general port of deposit in the island.

Merchandise having paid duty inwards pays none on exportation.

Every master of a vessel entering the port is obliged to present two manifests of his cargo and stores; one to the boarding-officers of the customs, and another at the time of making the entry and taking the oaths, twenty-four hours after arrival, with permission to make any necessary corrections within the twelve working hours; and every consignee is bound to deliver a detailed invoice of each cargo to his, her, or their consignment, within forty-eight hours after the vessel entering the port, and heavy penalties are incurred from mere omission or want of accuracy.

The total amount of duties paid upon the leading articles of *import* and *export* in foreign bottoms are shown in the following table, reduced to British money.

DUTY ON IMPORTS.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Beef.....barrel	0	12	6	Tar.....barrel	0	3	4½
— jerked Brazil100 lbs.	0	6	11	Wines, Marseille.....half pipe	1	7	6½
— ditto United States.....do.	0	8	11½	— ditto.....dozen	0	4	0
Bread, pilot and navy.....barrel	0	8	2½	— Bordeaux.....half pipe	1	18	1½
Butter100 lbs.	0	16	9½	— ditto.....dozen	0	5	2½
Candles, tallowdo.	0	16	9½	— Catalonia.....pipe	2	8	6
— spermdo.	1	15	9½	Sheetings.....piece	0	11	2
Cheese, Dutch and English.....do.	0	13	11½	Satinsdo.	0	18	7
— Americando.	0	12	3½	Chairs, Windsor.....dozen	1	7	11½
Cordage, tarred.....do.	1	8	6	Boards1000 feet	1	2	4½
Flour, foreign.....barrel	2	0	5	Hoops.....1000	2	0	3
Fish, cod and scale.....100 lbs.	0	3	11½	Box of Hooks.....each	0	1	0
— herring.....barrel	0	6	4	Hogshead dittodo.	0	1	1½
— mackereldo.	0	5	0½	Coals.....ton	0	3	7
Hams100 lbs.	0	14	0	Powder.....100 lbs.	1	0	2
Larddo.	0	16	9½	Earthenwarecrate	2	10	4
Nails.....do.	0	7	10	Axes.....dozen	0	8	5
Oil, whale.....gallon	0	0	7	Machetsdo.	0	10	6
— linseeddo.	0	0	7	Hoes.....do.	0	5	1
Onions, ropes.....100 lbs.	0	4	6	Table knives and forks.....do.	0	3	5
Potatoes.....barrel	0	1	9½	Iron wrought in bars.....100 lbs.	0	4	6
Porkdo.	0	19	7	Sheet copper.....do.	1	14	11
Rice.....100 lbs.	0	8	5	Tumblers, all sizes.....dozen	0	1	2
Soapdo.	0	14	0	Wine glasses, ditto.....do.	0	1	2
Coffee.....do.	0	2	5½	Cigars.....1000	0	2	6½
Sugar.....do.	0	1	1	Rumcask	0	2	0
Molasses.....cask	0	3	0	Tafia.....do.	0	2	0
Fustic.....ton	0	1	1	Wax.....100 lbs.	0	5	1
Lignum vitæ.....do.	0	3	0	Hideseach	0	0	5
Tobacco.....100 lbs.	0	6	9				

The tonnage duty on Spanish vessels is 5 rials, or 2s. 6d. sterling per register ton.

On foreign vessels, 12 rials, or 6s. sterling.

On vessels arriving in distress or in ballast, or departing empty, no duty is levied.

Beside the tonnage duty, every foreign square-rigged vessel entering with cargo and loading here, incurs about 17*l.* sterling expenses, with 5½ dollars or 1*l.* 2s. sterling for each day occupied in discharging. Foreign fore and aft vessels, pay about 3*l.* sterling less port charges. Spanish vessels incur nearly the same amount of charges.

Every vessel is required to bring a bill of health, certified by the British consul at the port of her departure, or at that nearest to the same, and want of attention to this rule subjects the vessel to quarantine.

The ton is composed of 20 quintals.

The gallon in use here is equal to that of the English old measure.

The dollar is worth about 4s. sterling: the foregoing calculations are at that rate.

The Sevillian piseta, worth one-fifth part of a milled dollar, is the coin chiefly in circulation in this part of the island; it was permitted to be imported up to the year 1831, at the rate of four pisetas to the dollar, and consequently has driven almost every other coin beyond its aliquot parts out of circulation. The Spanish government, however, at length aware that smuggling transactions in these pisetas were carried on to a great extent, have lately issued an order reducing them to their proper value, and paying the holders the difference of 20 per cent in coupons to be redeemed hereafter at the will of the authorities.

TONNAGE DUTIES AND PORT CHARGES.

Tonnage duty on Spanish vessels 62½ cents; and on foreign vessels 8 dls. 50 cts. per ton.

In the port of Havanna an additional duty is exacted of 21½ cents per ton on all vessels, national or foreign, for the support of the dredging machine (pontoon).

The wharf dues in Havanna are on Spanish vessels, 75 cents per day; other nations 1 dlr. 50 cts. per day for each 100 tons of their register measurement.

Lighthouse dues, officers' fees, &c., are not estimated, there being no official information in the department with regard to them, except for the port of Baracoa. The port charges differ in the various ports; those of Baracoa are:—tonnage duty, 1 dlr. 50 cts. per ton; anchorage, 12 dls.; free pass at the fort, 3 dls.; health officer's fee for boarding vessels, 8 dls.; custom-house interpreter, 5 dls.; officer's fee to remain on board to seal and unseal while discharging, 5 dls.; inspecting vessel's register, 8 dls.; clearance 8 dollars.

The collection of the duties is made in a very simple manner. The island of Cuba is divided into customs' intendancies, of which Havanna is the principal.

The intendency is organised into seven branches; viz., the intendant, the superior council of the hacienda, the tribunal of accounts, the accountant-general, the treasurer-general, the administration of the customs, and the administration of the internal revenue. The administration of the customs is comprised of the administrator or collector, the accountant, and the treasurer.

When a vessel arrives at the Havanna, she is first boarded by the health officer; after whom comes the revenue officer, and the smuggling preventive service.

A copy of the custom-house regulations, in Spanish, French, and English, is handed to the captain, and a manifest required of him of all the particulars of his vessel and cargo. Every article on board the vessel omitted in the manifest, is subject to confiscation.

Within forty-eight hours after the entry of the vessel, every consignee must deliver a detailed statement of the articles coming to him, with their quantities, weights, and measures, all reduced to the legal standard.

All the documents and papers relating to a vessel are stitched together in a book, with the signatures and seals of all the government officers through whose hands the several documents pass. A copy of this book is made for the use of the inspectors and appraisers; the latter function being restrained within very narrow limits, by a printed tariff of all articles of import, with a valuation to each, which valuation in a great degree defines the duties of their *ad valorem* character. As fast as the inspection and appraisement takes place, the consignee is permitted to remove the goods, by procuring the signature of some responsible person to the words inscribed in the book, "I make myself answerable for the duties." The inspection and appraisement being concluded, the book is returned to the accountant's office where the liquidation of the duties is forthwith made.

The payment is then proceeded with. These payments are mostly cash; that is to say, on some articles, whatever may be the amount, cash is required; upon other articles the duties are cash under 1000 dollars. If the amount is greater, a credit of one-fourth is given for sixty days, and one-fourth payable at the end of each succeeding month—making five months' credit in all. The security for this credit consists simply in the promissory note of the consignee, without endorsement, with the power, in case of a failure, to convert every other note of the same individual into a cash debt; the individual to be for ever after incapacitated to enter goods except for cash.

This system has been in force many years, and under it no loss whatever has been sustained by the government.

Formerly the same credits required the endorsement of a holder of real estate, but this was abandoned on account of its insecurity.

The exports of the island produce are generally for account of speculations, sometimes for account of European refiners, and rarely for account of the planters. The chief speculators are the United States and European merchants. Shipowners, and merchants in Cuba, often take interests in cargoes, and some are shipped on account of speculators at Havanna. The produce being always purchased for cash, it is sometimes done with the nett proceeds of imports. Sometimes specie is imported for the purpose; but a large proportion is paid for by bills of exchange. Drawers of bills, of good character, can always sell them to any amount. When abroad, bills are not in demand; returns for imports are made in produce for account of their owners, instead of being made in bills drawn against the same produce for account of some speculator.

Money accounts are kept in pesos, reals, and maravedis. The peso, or dollar, is equal to 8 reals plate, or 20 reals vellon. The real plate is equal to 34 maravedis. By the act of Congress of 1799, the real of plate is estimated at 10 cents, and the real vellon at 5 cents, and they are so calculated at the custom-houses. There are, also, as in other parts of the Spanish dominions, halves, quarters, eighths, and sixteenths of the dollar.

The gold coins are the doubloon, and its subdivisions. The doubloon is equal to 8 escudos d'oro, or gold crowns, and is legally worth 10 dollars, but the price varies, according to weight, and sometimes to demand.

Weights and Measures.—The pound is equal to about 1 lb. 4 drs. avoirdupois; making 100 lbs. of libras, equal to 101 lbs. 7 oz. avoirdupois.

The subdivisions are:—36 grains = 1 adarme; 2 adarmes = 1 drachma; 8 drachmas = 1 onza; 16 onzas = 1 libra; 25 libras = 1 arroba; 4 arrobas = 1 quintal.

The vara is equal to 33,384 inches, or 108 varas = 100 yards. The fanega is equal

to 3 bushels nearly, or 200 lbs. Spanish. The arroba of liquid measure is equal to 4245 gallons.

IMPORTS and Exports of the Precious Metals to and from Cuba.

M E T A L.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
IMPORTS.				
Coined gold.....	1,497,408	908,108	595,780	792,124
„ silver.....	709,770	454,118	185,859	366,646
Total.....	2,207,178	1,362,226	781,639	1,158,770
EXPORTS.				
Coined gold.....	850,858	526,322	326,842	154,055
„ silver.....	874,945	526,778	765,829	1,136,605
Total.....	1,725,803	1,053,100	1,092,671	1,290,660
Excess of imports.....	481,375	209,126		
„ exports.....			311,032	131,891
				dollars.
Exports of specie to the United States.....				51,357
Imports „ from „				177,120
Excess of imports.....				125,763

STATISTICS of the Comparative and Aggregate Amount of the Commerce of the Island of Cuba with all Nations.

Y E A R S.	I M P O R T S.						E X P O R T S.					
	National commerce.	In national vessels.	United States.	England.	Spanish American ports.	France.	National commerce.	In national vessels.	United States.	England.	Spanish American ports.	France.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
1826.....	2,858,793	314,683	5,632,808	1,323,627		1,169,451	1,992,689	185,878	3,894,597	1,583,474		1,162,218
1827.....	2,541,322	349,728	7,162,695	1,618,371		1,472,204	2,284,250	184,059	4,107,449	1,605,073		1,043,618
1828.....	4,523,302	431,553	6,599,096	1,770,085		1,635,855	1,556,224	711,479	3,176,964	1,611,820		754,812
1829.....	4,961,043	844,826	5,734,765	1,837,775		1,254,947	2,292,580	562,653	3,191,535	1,729,404		907,808
1830.....	4,739,776	1,051,538	4,791,544	1,745,388		721,648	3,740,747	543,267	4,266,782	1,233,594		757,736
1831.....	4,121,829	1,825,890	4,690,308	1,465,983		669,604	2,193,761	727,338	3,921,592	1,567,720		441,058
1832.....	3,576,707	3,178,596	3,542,936	1,257,964		805,824	2,173,537	993,404	3,108,466	2,101,686		360,099
1833.....	3,185,781	4,777,580	4,461,472	1,625,173	1,371,786	927,491	1,854,714	1,274,040	4,386,885	910,981	19,678	531,321
1834.....	3,412,487	4,970,013	3,690,101	1,676,918	1,747,224	906,414	2,074,502	1,401,568	3,824,724	2,080,387	16,214	667,431
1835.....	3,508,349	5,200,955	5,406,919	1,689,465	2,084,552	904,140	1,801,092	1,114,695	4,365,569	1,754,676	10,275	603,985
1836.....	4,470,725	5,680,070	6,553,281	1,522,429	1,579,588	817,445	2,348,453	917,733	5,513,924	1,700,115	36,185	489,654
1837.....	4,659,153	4,966,191	6,548,957	1,373,964	1,099,367	861,360	2,919,474	1,294,282	5,792,623	2,990,466	248,323	1,344,608
1838.....	4,460,987	6,163,152	6,202,002	1,439,300	1,713,650	816,954	2,692,159	1,532,840	5,574,591	3,083,328	30,562	771,574
1839.....	5,320,515	7,108,704	6,132,794	1,770,499	1,467,125	714,664	2,719,792	1,951,785	5,528,045	5,141,098	70,985	845,906
1840.....	5,295,261	6,684,718	5,654,125	1,437,199	915,541	618,461	3,473,630	2,044,441	5,660,739	6,749,438	37,219	908,605
1842.....	5,557,351		6,200,221	3,110,698	2,487,894	1,476,752	3,729,970		5,282,574	9,259,606	301,562	1,617,712

Y E A R S.	I M P O R T S.					E X P O R T S.				
	Hanse Towns and the Pays Bas.	Ports of the Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	TOTAL.	Hanse Towns and the Pays Bas.	Ports of the Baltic.	Italy and Portugal.	Warehouse.	TOTAL.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
1826.....	1,631,125	16,849	218,794	1,759,621	14,925,754	2,998,154	487,223	200,761	1,312,839	13,809,838
1827.....	1,640,011	192,826	309,047	2,066,646	17,352,854	2,651,083	487,288	439,402	1,483,966	14,286,192
1828.....	2,082,906	176,027	282,584	2,033,507	19,534,922	2,809,229	783,521	237,289	1,473,020	13,114,362
1829.....	1,346,875	87,886	115,293	2,521,442	18,695,856	2,406,813	904,920	303,540	1,653,247	13,952,405
1830.....	1,701,358	81,958	102,116	1,236,283	16,171,562	2,448,290	1,035,268	334,137	1,521,144	15,870,968
1831.....	1,808,899	20,632	50,582	895,061	15,548,791	2,188,299	544,839	443,466	890,644	12,918,711
1832.....	1,918,197	33,843	87,884	796,511	15,198,465	2,590,813	1,135,525	393,574	737,009	13,595,017
1833.....	1,145,967	90,931	96,754	828,193	18,511,132	1,771,381	1,137,774	250,511	858,813	13,996,100
1834.....	855,363	19,215	151,151	1,134,407	18,563,300	2,289,782	1,081,284	101,443	954,615	14,487,955
1835.....	619,211	55,687	145,443	1,107,345	20,722,072	2,076,001	994,771	158,926	1,179,252	14,059,246
1836.....	766,959	59,068	92,628	1,009,771	22,551,969	1,934,935	1,029,570	264,730	1,132,942	15,398,245
1837.....	565,048	28,341	95,450	2,639,521	22,940,357	2,713,586	644,018	523,106	1,875,918	20,346,407
1838.....	916,498	79,193	64,593	2,873,545	24,729,878	2,698,163	1,646,953	366,643	1,674,287	20,471,102
1839.....	552,078	124,405	36,099	2,087,911	25,217,796	2,054,088	266,401	424,905	2,478,848	21,481,848
1840.....	1,010,291	47,914	29,492	3,357,172	24,700,189	2,835,620	924,398	319,941	2,987,745	25,941,783
1842.....	3,402,395	188,354	191,464	2,021,394	24,637,527	3,588,917	770,067	326,652	1,807,536	26,694,701

IMPORTS and Exports of Cuba, for 1842, distinguishing the Flag.

C O U N T R I E S.	I M P O R T S.		E X P O R T S.	
	Spanish Vessels.	Foreign Vessels.	Spanish Ships.	Foreign Ships.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Spain	5,508,035	49,316	3,729,970	
United States	474,262	5,725 959	243,683	5,038,891
France	989,931	486,821	515,678	1,102,034
England	2,000,212	1,110,485	697,502	8,562,103
Holland	129,194	195,827	18,336	434,801
Belgium.....	372,080	9,762	64,497	307,699
Germany.....	2,332,113	363,417	430,281	2,333,302
Italy.....	138,381	37,312	73,816	235,928
Portugal	160	15,611	10,999	5,907
Denmark	90,518	61,198	7,255	52,401
Spanish America.....	1,342,150	1,145,743	280,796	20,776
Brazils.....		37,638		
Russia				710,411
Warehouse.....	2,021,394			1,807,536
	15,398,430	9,239,089	6,072,813	20,611,789

IMPORTS into the Island of Cuba, in 1839, 1840, 1841, and 1842.

A R T I C L E S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
LIQUORS.				
Sweet oil	372,403	228,960	306,702	266,777
Rum (aquardiente).....	170,602	161,322	259,598	259,600
Malt liquors.....	171,727	180,760	222,617	162,478
Gin	75,170	106,599	160,092	198,205
Cider.....	30,791	25,762	37,498	22,765
Vinegar.....	11,123	8,812	12,890	11,298
Wine, white.....	87,132	101,722	155,713	135,721
Wine, red.....	1,382,240	1,103,971	1,229,764	1,203,713
Other liquors.....	89,365	82,050	45,036	42,144
Total liquors	2,390,558	1,999,958	2,429,910	2,302,701
PROVISIONS.				
Pork.....	40,571	55,296	62,275	38,944
Beef.....	46,417	46,344	50,170	34,814
— smoked	2,560	4,239	9,187	12,712
— jerked.....	1,655,433	1,582,278	1,868,823	1,806,610
Sausages.....	30,620	30,354	30,833	40,867
Bacon.....	28,073	36,569	28,785	37,046
Ham.....	81,728	81,174	130,300	122,718
Total provisions	1,885,402	1,836,254	2,180,373	2,093,711
SPICES.				
Saffron	34,896	48,186	18,525	19,697
Cinnamon	47,376	13,984	12,180	8,867
Cloves	4,241	6,921	3,496	1,862
Pimento	5,389	1,707	5,386	3,013
Pepper.....	8,422	23,857	11,259	2,968
Other Spices	18,900	19,677	9,428	8,977
Total spices	119,224	114,332	60,274	45,384
FRUITS.				
Olives.....	31,033	33,709	33,442	39,295
Almonds	53,284	51,720	43,346	61,986
Filberts	9,312	4,908	11,194	14,575
Prunes.....	9,867	6,156	3,512	5,482
Figs	14,232	16,781	9,584	12,971
Raisins	51,382	51,466	66,338	78,421
Other fruits.....	57,124	64,566	60,153	51,057
Total fruits.....	226,234	229,306	227,569	263,787
BREADSTUFFS.				
Rice.....	838,914	1,037,773	1,030,784	971,484
Cocoa.....	40,463	174,428	30,683	27,239
Beans.....	38,877	20,622	37,805	31,751
— Spanish.....	79,332	62,522	50,542	83,353
Wheat flour.....	2,416,611	2,425,162	2,843,193	2,358,896
Indian meal	810	2,452	6,927	1,017
Indian corn.....	1,457	4,662	3,592	10,684
Other breadstuffs.....	28,386	23,947	8,972	21,959
Total breadstuffs.....	3,444,850	3,751,568	4,012,498	3,506,383

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	1839	1840	1841	1842
LINENS.				
Drills	dollars. 284,933	dollars. 209,755	dollars. 158,638	dollars. 287,824
Cambrics	22,830	10,169	19,252	23,150
Stockings	3,118	6,166	3,833	27,146
Lace	23,653	16,128	1,370	290
Russias	328,317	276,302	200,354	353,672
Holland	24,102	21,871	26,514	49,612
Irish	30,317	70,533	29,265	67,115
Caleta	371,741	193,798	233,614	416,502
Creas	171,494	185,002	129,745	152,530
Listados	460,629	313,752	55,224	220,500
Platillas	453,842	512,941	613,807	690,812
Lawns	37,975	43,407	33,830	36,545
Estopillas	113,557	127,354	69,881	148,700
Other linens	307,778	458,077	368,553	568,822
Total linens	2,634,286	2,445,255	1,943,880	3,043,220
SHOES AND LEATHER.				
Boots	11,608	7,490	3,199	1,476
Tanned skins	173,401	157,440		134,849
Saddles	49,013	57,042	38,060	53,260
Leather	57,141	50,306	57,874	31,888
Shoes	289,100	127,363	132,545	131,349
Other peltry	70,893	125,293	153,009	33,072
Total	651,256	524,934	384,687	385,894
LUMBER.				
Hoops	87,446	97,626	105,841	68,185
Hogsheads	278,864	223,120	525,837	700,551
Fustic	141,134	66,078	1,597	2,127
Boards	655,982	733,467	720,692	515,047
Shingles	9,174	5,961	7,542	6,134
Other lumber	120,177	204,801	17,649	27,299
Total lumber	1,292,777	1,331,053	1,379,158	1,319,343
OILS.				
Whale	102,711	136,194	180,810	132,968
Lard	620,245	507,124	748,768	723,525
Butter	33,861	47,149	77,811	80,635
Cheese	67,328	94,410	132,147	136,182
Tallow	26,609	95,116	62,188	58,629
Tallow candles	152,937	160,907	223,048	161,425
Sperm candles	42,037	64,841	38,100	102,621
Other oils			42,458	53,765
Total oils	1,015,728	1,105,741	1,443,180	1,449,750
FISH.				
Herring	17,333	20,149	9,754	19,506
Atun	2,659	1,228	1,417	3,943
Cod	318,016	365,408	332,934	330,478
Mackarel	16,981	7,177	565	12,683
Salt fish	16,783	15,066	39,012	33,858
Sardines	26,045	29,879	44,704	45,878
Salmon	894	832	2,710	2,129
Total fish	398,711	439,739	431,096	448,475
MISCELLANEOUS.				
Onions	28,633	38,261	39,838	41,004
Vermicelli	114,219	117,129	78,511	137,765
Crackers	28,199	25,768	18,840	9,729
Potatoes	67,366	77,759	95,662	127,619
Teas	4,434	4,078	2,210	12,910
Vegetables and pickles	49,425	33,732	55,728	47,367
Total	292,276	296,727	290,789	346,394
WOOLLENS.				
Bombazines	3,531	2,843	1,028	2,121
Baize	52,147	87,667	30,997	49,389
Cassimere	3,687	2,609	2,207	8,412
Cloth	71,898	88,061	52,580	81,773
Frozadus	66,197	70,438	43,848	51,046
Other woollens	83,605	106,224	64,586	83,195
Total woollens	281,065	357,842	195,246	275,936
MISCELLANEOUS.				
Almond oil	26,930	9,717		86,497
Linseed	24,047	20,899		12,408
Tar	9,403	9,717	9,432	8,148
Horses and mules	17,000	20,899	13,935	19,041
Live stock	184	422		5,594
Indigo	216,190	280,853		200
Coal	14,513	21,768	43,059	107,017

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Glass	213,393	145,746	111,558	146,752
Ironware	911,127	695,632	737,135	672,828
Caps	5,410	6,451	2,139	3,899
Cochineal	107,238	62,980		
Ice	56,160	60,772	149,960	140,040
Twine	12,726	35,099	17,467	10,305
Soap	480,398	489,456	258,094	339,529
Rigging	32,554	92,662	20,474	30,131
Bricks	43,974	66,729	58,674	42,802
Books	79,013	67,919	73,681	75,588
Marbleware	20,299	12,213	17,925	21,945
Earthenware	137,276	146,139	158,515	81,442
Machinery	21,707	28,180		90,933
Medicine	169,470	101,837	122,998	137,755
Hardware	546,621	711,885	174,186	381,735
Furniture	60,794	68,102	76,387	105,222
White paper	198,176	116,983	91,391	118,301
Wrapping paper	69,770			110,000
Paper hangings	6,982	3,502	89,091	20,107
Perfumery	65,488	67,651	95,158	74,284
Paint	60,777	46,406	58,230	38,086
Powder	55,349	27,811	18,841	24,133
Jewellery	43,415	81,132	63,253	79,928
Clothing	53,868		38,498	34,676
Bagging	63,570	110,519	109,781	79,184
Salt	100,813	115,612	238,145	156,321
Leeches	12,880	15,730		15,150
Ropes	67,919	133,508	67,992	87,166
Hats	74,770	90,021	45,207	128,957
Tobacco leaf	18,621	18,630		
— stems	12,853	38,211	21,459	28,659
Snuff	1,715	1,481	1,776	1,077
Chairs	59,579	49,215		
Sarsaparilla	12,321	25,063	4,955	5,697
Yeso	10,157	3,641	3,517	3,235
Other articles	254	89,850	190,112	310,216
Total miscellaneous .	4,196,306	4,191,105	3,183,025	3,834,988
COTTON MANUFACTURES.				
Cotton wool	392,926	2,054,086		2,322
Coquillo	4,386	661	5,191	
Drills	139,866	167,065	181,678	77,396
Listados	382,237	122,556	124,246	134,698
Nankeen	10,418	11,330	1,687	506
Blankets	62,139	24,923	33,380	47,486
Stockings	197,314	133,318	142,252	159,525
Muslins	360,478	224,796	364,941	383,326
Cambrics	169,972	116,778	2,429	124,607
Dresses	22,246	13,931	18,980	54,783
Handkerchiefs	334,430	243,137	152,652	138,484
Calicoes	485,207	270,412	469,981	265,608
Other articles	525,088	749,729	377,648	360,571
Total cotton manufactures.	3,086,707	4,132,722	1,875,065	1,749,312
SILKS.				
Ribbons	85,737	102,549	55,747	75,806
Shawls	49,784	25,981	9,734	62,409
Silk net	26,281	20,722	11,545	3,140
Mantillas	4,948	7,983	8,959	9,809
Stockings	33,730	19,457	35,146	30,827
Handkerchiefs	105,883	80,041	45,254	47,667
Umbrellas	20,373	18,316	14,324	8,834
Net goods	8,309	1,419		
Satin	35,895	37,580	45,862	63,551
Serge	10,016	3,723	4,851	7,986
Sewing silk	35,771	29,731		11,116
Tafeta	12,182	9,721	4,350	22,870
Dresses	490	951	68,530	1,002
Other silks	54,663	71,377		41,047
Total silks	484,062	432,551	304,302	386,064
METALS.				
Quicksilver	23,838			
Nails	143,586	126,375		147,175
Copper	127,269	57,590	177,958	94,058
Iron	261,855	118,782	46,130	92,729
Coined gold	1,497,408	908,108	119,997	792,124
— silver	709,770	454,118	595,780	359,095
Lead	42,971	30,939	185,859	2,146
Other metals		5,940	48,271	9,165
Total metals	2,806,697	1,701,852	1,173,995	1,497,392
Total importations	25,236,139	24,790,939	21,515,247	22,848,324
In warehouse			3,299,483	2,021,394

The regulations in regard to, and the expense of, the entry of goods in the island of Cuba, may best be understood from the actual disbursements on account of a British or other foreign vessel, as follows :

DISBURSEMENTS BY A FOREIGN SHIP-MASTER AT THE PORT OF HAVANA.

	dollars.	dollars.
Custom-house entry and stamp	3 25	
Harbour-master's fees, in and out	6 00	
Board of health	2 00	
Marine interpreter	2 00	
Translating manifest	10 00	
		23 25
Tonnage duty on 160 4-95 tons, at 1 dollar 50 cents per ton, and 1 per cent "balanza" duty on amount of said tonnage	393 94	
Wharfage from 10th to 23rd instant, inclusive, fourteen days, at 1 dollar 25 cents per day on each hundred tons, 260 tons	45 00	
Stage hire fourteen days, at 75 cents per day, and 3 rials for carrying the same	10 88	
Mud-machine, 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ rials per ton, and 1 per cent "balanza"	57 44	
		507 26
Custom-house clearance, and bills of discharge:—		
Eleven days' discharge, at 5 dollars 50 cents per day	60 50	
Two visits, in and out	11 00	
Seven sheets of extracts, each 1 dollar	7 00	
Clearance	8 00	
Stamp paper for clearance	8 25	
		94 75
Light money	4 00	
Moro pass, governor's fee, and clearing officer	4 00	
Certificates of duties being paid	4 25	
Custom-house broker	3 00	
		15 25
The following are not government charges, but in continuation, &c.:—		
Bill of health, 7 dollars; Russian consul's certificate, 8 dollars 50 cents; Danish consul's certificate, 5 dlrs.	20 50	
		20 50
Cooper's bill for repairing casks	9 94	
Journeyman for discharging cargo, twelve days, for six men, each 75 cents per day	54 00	
American consul's bill	10 25	
Ligherage on 1573 boxes sugar	157 25	
Trip on board	0 40	
		231 84
Total		892 85

To which add commission, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

During the time a vessel is discharging, a government officer is stationed on board, and is required to report daily to an officer of the custom-house; and for each report the vessel pays 5 dollars 50 cents. The charge is the same, whether one barrel or a thousand is discharged each day. A vessel loaded with jerked beef pays 5 dollars 50 cents for every 500 arrobas, or 12,500 lbs., without reference to the quantity discharged each day. Lumber pays 5 dollars 50 cents for every 20,000 feet. Cotton, the same for every 60 bales. Salt cargoes, 5 dollars 50 cents per day. Logwood a like sum for every 800 quintals.

and the same amount for every 25 tons. Three copies of the invoices of all cargoes are made out to the custom-house on Spanish stamped paper; and for each leaf is charged 1 dollar. It frequently happens that thirty to forty sheets, of not more than four to five lines each, are required from vessels from New York, Havre, and Liverpool. These are some of the vexatious extortions which are allowed to interfere seriously with the interests of that magnificent island. The following is a statement of the ships that have arrived and sailed from each part of the island :—

SHIPS entered and sailed from the Island of Cuba.

P O R T S.	Entered.		Sailed.	
	Spanish.	Foreign.	Spanish.	Foreign.
Havana.....	509	901	467	952
Cuba.....	130	284	128	273
Nuevitas.....	22	25	12	25
Matanzas.....	80	270	79	338
Trinidad.....	55	136	54	138
Baracoa.....	8	17	4	17
Gibara.....	40	10	39	11
Cienfuegos.....	7	86	6	88
Manzanillo.....	21	29	25	41
Santi-Espiritu.....	3	1	4	2
Santa Cruz.....	4	10	5	12
San Juan.....	5	4	5	3
Total, 1842....	884	1773	828	1900
„ 1841....	1053	1981	1036	2082
„ 1840....	958	2065	912	2160

TONNAGE entered, with Imports and Import Duties.

TONNAGE ENTERED.

P O R T S.	1839	1840	1841	1842		
				Free.	Paying duty.	TOTAL.
Havana.....	237,801	255,430	252,251	16,013	230,010	246,023
Cuba.....	53,139	67,274	67,252	47,913	62,070	109,983
Nuevitas.....	5,177	66,091	4,963	200	3,868	4,568
Matanzas.....	67,244	71,071	77,573	3,558	59,101	62,659
Trinidad.....	28,965	31,138	32,123	9,797	21,617	31,416
Baracoa.....	1,710	1,693	2,426		2,224	2,224
Gibara.....	4,322	3,962	3,689	670	2,865	3,535
Cienfuegos.....	7,349	12,604	15,253	2,924	11,653	14,577
Manzanillo.....	8,359	7,945	8,804	1,844	6,611	8,455
Santi-Espiritu.....	1,005	490	578	147	258	405
Santa Cruz.....	1,785	2,142	2,635		913	913
San Juan.....	221	389	293		337	337
Total.....	417,077	520,229	467,840	83,066	401,527	485,095
1841.....				51,069	416,770	467,839

VALUE OF IMPORTS.

P O R T S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Havana.....	18,436,888	17,713,310	18,581,877	18,801,913
Cuba.....	3,165,422	2,927,497	2,671,421	2,382,938
Nuevitas.....	152,647	172,263	186,828	171,383
Matanzas.....	1,868,819	1,863,624	1,995,311	1,801,558
Trinidad.....	1,012,267	990,012	942,661	828,185
Baracoa.....	36,407	57,376	81,832	87,490
Gibara.....	197,840	156,856	127,588	172,084
Cienfuegos.....	187,935	310,741	288,732	195,935
Manzanillo.....	155,142	152,321	153,072	117,030
Santa Espiritu.....	21,677	17,860	25,869	14,806
Santa Cruz.....	69,497	83,025	54,732	44,589
San Juan.....	11,255	10,303	8,484	19,519
	25,315,796	24,505,188	25,121,407	24,637,430

AMOUNT of Customs Import Duties, levied in Cuba.

P O R T S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Havana.....	4,388,790	4,150,343	4,071,509	4,449,215
Cuba	671,731	680,212	700,964	531,673
Nuevitas.....	50,297	52,579	45,425	65,116
Matanzas.....	539,758	590,674	595,558	525,352
Trinidad.....	217,790	244,759	262,310	215,145
Baracoa.....	11,770	11,802	22,663	18,741
Gibara.....	59,368	47,082	37,797	38,189
Cienfuegos.....	64,984	65,079	87,618	78,603
Manzanillo.....	62,076	57,403	67,412	48,041
Santi-Espiritu.....	10,316	7,012	10,291	7,158
Santa Cruz.....	30,183	38,404	36,675	21,517
San Juan.....	6,440	6,449	5,591	6,877
Total.....	6,113,503	5,951,798	5,943,813	6,005,627

THE following is a Table of the Values, and the Countries from whence the leading Supplies of Manufactures were Imported in the Year 1842 :

C O U N T R I E S.	Cottons.	Woollens.	Linens.	Silks.	Leather.	Lumber and Provisions.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Spain.....	35,621	1,452	14,073	67,442	119,113	2,870,287
United States.....	80,905	13,217	158,466	69,361	8,620	3,104,945
France.....	245,046	18,434	665,634	102,943	52,039	184,293
England.....	631,944	171,481	464,687	44,152	20	215,373
Holland.....	4,008		1,789			142,350
Belgium.....	46,171	14,725	74,320	24,947	38,414	25,461
Germany	282,151	43,118	1,695,643	19,010	4,177	154,083
Warehouse	178,117	5,611	158,542	13,491	768	16,970
Other places.....	1,552	5,100	383	1,101	60,488	1,106,077
Total.....	1,505,515	273,138	3,233,537	342,447	283,639	7,819,839

The United States, it appears, supplies but a very small proportion even of those manufactures of which she has the best means of producing. Nearly all the manufactures coming from England are in Spanish bottoms, while American manufactures are in United States vessels. Spanish vessels can go to England, take in cotton goods, and carry them to Cuba, on better terms than American vessels can carry them direct. This is a singular fact, and is to be accounted for only on the ground that the paper currency of the United States carries the level of prices too high to admit of profitable shipment to the specie prices of Cuba. This view is confirmed by the fact that, during the six months which has elapsed of the year 1843, cottons have been exported from the United States to an amount far greater than ever before. A difference in the currencies of the two countries forms an insuperable bar to equality of intercourse.

VALUE of Exports from the Island of Cuba.

A R T I C L E S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Mahogany	103,272	64,398	66,261	56,161
Spirits from the cane.....	174,055	211,051	226,050	204,550
Cocoa.....	1,024		2,538	32
Cotton	310,418	133,885	132,874	75,834
Coffee.....	1,950,469	2,143,574	1,852,509	2,998,269
Sugar.....	8,290,387	11,264,367	11,613,798	11,447,009
Cedar	31,065	25,901	21,671	40,101
Wax.....	147,686	115,311	307,131	290,828
Copper ore.....	2,418,450	3,706,951	4,505,490	4,981,405
Hides.....	15,054	6,991	22,633	21,130
Sweetmeats.....	14,168	19,429	14,394	7,091
Fruits.....	91,837	94,242	96,708	49,298
Honey	51,744	55,918	68,862	71,325
Molasses	900,163	1,346,820	821,188	744,608
Horses and mules.....	43,722	19,388		1,205
Fustic.....	92,124	82,564	82,918	
Cattle.....	984	124		
Cigars.....	637,558	535,122	719,364	749,812
Tobacco.....	1,273,069	1,395,689	1,677,743	1,461,760
Other articles	79,371	87,979	51,215	200,289
Total products.....	16,626,620	21,309,704	22,283,347	23,400,707

M E T A L S, &c.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Quicksilver.....	9,900	7,461		
Indigo.....	210,344	186,061		
Cochineal.....	254,300	33,955		
Coined gold.....	850,858	526,322	326,842	154,055
— silver.....	874,945	526,778	765,829	1,136,605
Other metals.....			39,996	46,903
Total.....	2,200,347	1,280,577	1,132,667	1,337,763

FOREIGN Goods.

A R T I C L E S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Cotton wool.....	513,772	1,842,192		
— manufactures.....	843,259	539,051	24,466	6,023
Liquors.....	135,252	95,105	153,347	
Glass.....	16,709	5,975	6,372	
Fruits and grains.....	108,985	171,478	37,525	
Hardware.....	87,523	154,901	7,528	
Woollens.....	30,199	10,135	5,688	1,426
Linens.....	333,616	164,504	67,418	8,621
Fustic.....	96,537	76,805		
Peltry.....	25,714	17,775	3,507	
Silk.....	104,585	74,319	45,203	4,919
Tobacco.....	26,898	29,492		
Sarsaparilla.....	12,888	19,270		993
Other articles.....	318,828	159,587	159,452	116,367
Total foreign goods.....	2,654,765	3,360,589	510,506	138,349
Grand Total exportations...	21,481,732	25,950,870	23,924,507	24,876,619
Exports from warehouse...				1,807,536

TONNAGE Cleared, with Exports and Export Duties.

TONNAGE Cleared.

P O R T S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	tons.	tons.	tons.	tons.
Havana.....	235,703	223,167	253,865	233,446
Cuba.....	54,006	68,121	64,416	90,238
Nuevitas.....	4,923	5,370	3,628	4,955
Matanzas.....	80,526	98,100	97,349	80,750
Trinidad.....	28,238	30,547	30,880	31,424
Baracoa.....	1,603	1,111	2,221	1,880
Gibara.....	4,404	3,894	2,880	3,468
Cienfuegos.....	7,778	12,563	14,973	15,116
Manzanillo.....	10,515	9,412	8,806	9,129
Santi-Espiritu.....	954	1,385	200	529
Santa Cruz.....	2,913	1,176	617	943
San Juan.....	337	267	192	228
Total Tonnage.....	431,900	455,113	480,027	472,106

EXPORT Duties levied at the several Ports.

P O R T S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Havana.....	694,337	770,359	702,058	710,613
Cuba.....	140,271	141,042	117,118	153,096
Nuevitas.....	5,602	7,780	6,510	9,967
Matanzas.....	274,537	370,336	346,922	328,078
Trinidad.....	73,369	78,761	89,249	91,152
Baracoa.....	867	1,759	4,567	2,932
Gibara.....	17,429	12,679	10,390	19,089
Cienfuegos.....	20,201	31,207	28,609	35,478
Manzanillo.....	14,513	11,251	10,626	12,981
Santi-Espiritu.....	1,722	2,090	911	2,140
Santa Cruz.....	6,466	7,880	5,446	4,981
San Juan.....	250	551	236	1,203
Total.....	1,249,564	1,435,695	1,322,642	1,371,710

VALUE of Exports from the several Ports.

P O R T S.	1839	1840	1841	1842
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Havana	12,206,737	14,172,573	14,203,292	13,118,585
Cuba.....	4,149,866	5,211,057	5,933,631	6,784,765
Nuevitas	82,727	181,750	71,595	205,116
Matanzas.....	3,335,284	4,333,744	4,374,780	4,365,926
Trinidad.....	913,417	1,046,181	1,157,571	1,129,501
Baracoa	21,456	43,075	85,918	85,233
Gibara.....	240,255	217,562	161,582	248,763
Cienfuegos.....	280,669	506,256	506,379	509,806
Manzanillo	192,252	151,866	137,464	170,984
Santi-Espiritu.....	10,681	19,910	14,264	23,488
Santa Cruz.....	47,822	49,584	63,260	34,322
San Juan.....	662	8,220	4,878	8,208
Total.....	21,481,848	25,941,778	26,714,614	26,684,697

EXPORTS of Sugar and Coffee from Cuba, during the Years 1840 and 1841.

P O R T S.	1840		1841	
	Sugar.	Coffee.	Sugar.	Coffee.
	boxes.	arrobas.	boxes.	arrobas.
Havana.....	446,959	1,278,413½	440,144	739,158
Matanzas	265,584½	320,125½	272,768	111,908½
Trinidad.....	59,772	16,820	70,999	9,722
St. Jago.....	32,175	572,312	28,218	400,132
Total.....	804,490½	2,187,671	812,129	1,260,920½

EXPORTS of Sugar and Coffee from Havana and Matanzas in 1841 and 1842.

WHERE SENT TO.	SUGAR IN BOXES.				ARROBAS OF COFFEE.			
	From Havana.		From Matanzas.		From Havana.		From Matanzas.	
	1841	1842	1841	1842	1841	1842	1841	1842
England.....	17,343	15,785	2,974	1,535	13,031	60,074	120	
Cowes and a market	90,332	109,888	31,621	67,079	16,516	2,941	..	1,651
Russia.....	52,585	24,403	57,132	39,235	521	4,244	90	3,274
Sweden and Denmark	2,620	1,205						
Hamburg	34,957	49,395	33,626	40,348	29,626	90,964	471	2,318
Bremen.....	11,147	15,067	6,213	10,570	45,488	56,238	12,638	1,937
Holland.....	15,397	11,804	6,154	3,564	30	8,144		
Belgium.....	15,992	22,135	7,702	..	976	1,355		
Havre and Bordeaux.....	2,222	3,349	1,012	1,138	75,585	123,273	..	3,831
Marseilles.....	12,532	21,233	10,603	10,299	97,816	213,903	9,158	14,107
Spain.....	86,261	78,825	29,500	21,498	23,841	50,789	9,484	26,513
Italy.....	6,254	7,358	6,347	10,870	17,334	56,402	1,374	22,203
New York	37,616	22,982	14,447	14,894	4,268	23,656	3,516	22,430
Boston	23,074	13,572	24,883	20,182	2,418	27,762	2,292	22,712
Charleston	1,765	2,030	7,824	7,193	15,121	8,475	16,419	23,180
New Orleans	12,076	3,858	2,510	..	272,102	185,674	31,496	
Mobile.....	138	102	260	..	65,691	48,849	10,618	
Other ports of the United States.....	7,667	8,583	12,407	8,324	40,215	40,364	4,905	12,469
Various	4,486	5,891	6,752	4,046	4,879	10,300	5,628	4,742
Total Number of boxes...	434,464	417,465	261,967	260,775	725,488	1,013,607	108,209	161,373

The sugar imported into England from Cuba, as well as that from Brazil, has chiefly been refined in bond. The sugar exported from Brazil to Trieste, and to many other continental ports, those of France, Portugal, and Spain excepted, has been chiefly in British ships.

STATEMENT of the Number of Vessels which have arrived at, and sailed from the various Ports in the Island of Cuba, during the Year 1842.

COUNTRIES AND FLAGS.	ARRIVALS.							DEPARTURES.						
	Havana.	Matanzas.	Trinidad.	Outports of Trinidad.	Santiago de Cuba.	Outports of Santiago de Cuba.	TOTAL.	Havana.	Matanzas.	Trinidad.	Outports of Trinidad.	Santiago de Cuba.	Outports of Santiago de Cuba.	TOTAL.
Spanish.....	509	80	55	41	130	69	884	407	79	54	32	128	68	828
American	590	235	110	81	82	34	1132	626	287	111	81	83	48	1236
English.....	168	24	10	44	166	17	429	195	29	11	48	160	12	455
French.....	27	2	..	..	16	..	45	28	2	..	..	15	..	45
Belgium.....	6	..	..	..	..	..	6	7	..	..	..	..	..	7
Dutch.....	21	..	..	..	..	1	22	21	1	..	..	..	4	26
German	51	3	13	..	11	4	83	47	9	13	..	8	5	82
Danish.....	13	5	..	..	2	..	20	10	6	..	..	2	..	8
Swedish.....	6	..	..	..	..	..	6	6	2	..	..	..	..	8
Russian	3	1	..	..	..	..	4	3	1	..	..	..	..	4
Prussian.....	3	..	..	..	2	..	5	2	..	..	..	1	..	3
Italian	2	..	3	..	3	..	8	2	..	..	..	2	..	7
Portuguese.....	4	..	..	..	..	..	4	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
From Spanish Posses- sions	3	..	..	..	2	..	5	1	..	..	..	2	..	3
Brazils.....	2	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
East Indies.....	2	..	..	..	..	..	2	2	1	..	..	..	..	3
Total (1842)....	1410	350	191	166	414	125	2657	1359	417	192	161	401	137	2727
Total for 1841 .	1563	480	203	206	427	155	3034	1653	558	199	149	419	140	3118
Increase.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	12	..	..	..
Decrease	153	130	12	40	13	30	378	234	141	7	..	18	3	..

CHAPTER XIII.

SEAPORTS OF CUBA.

THE Havana, Spanish Habana, or as pompously styled in official language, "*La Siempre Fedelissima Ciudad de San Cristobal de la Habana*," is justly described as one of the best harbours in the world. The population, in 1827, consisted of 46,621 whites, 23,562 coloured and black free people, and 23,840 coloured and black slaves. Total, 94,023. Including the garrison, the present population is considered little if at all under 150,000.

The streets of Havana cross each other at right angles, and extend in straight lines from one side of the city to the other. In 1584 there were only four, and the notaries in those days commenced certain deeds with "*la publicá en las cuatro calles de esta Villa*."* In consequence of their regularity they do not now exceed fifty within the walls.

"They are all," says the author of a recent book, 1845, "*McAdamised*, thanks to the energy of Tacon, but their want of width has prevented the formation of sidewalks; unless the narrow row of flag-stones close to the houses, and which are often below the level of the street, may be so named. These are not unfrequently used in common by the carts and pedestrians; and in wet weather, forming as they do the inner boundaries of the side gutters, are scarcely preferable to the middle of the street. It is not, therefore, surprising that the ladies of Havana do not promenade in the city; indeed, the absence of the female form in the busy crowds that pass before the eyes of the stranger, constitutes one of its most striking features.

"In the more frequented channels of the city, considerable skill is requisite to wend your

* *La Habana en sus primeros dias.*

way safely. Besides a multitude of narrow carts, which, however, are supported on iron wheels so low that you might easily pass over one, if it obstructed the way, there is the lumbering volante, with its long shafts and ponderous wheels, rolling close by you at every moment. The horse trots leisurely on, so that if he does strike against you, it may be accepted as a friendly warning of the approach of the vehicle, for none is ever given by the postilion, and he is so far in advance of the wheels that you can very easily escape. Add to these the heavy ox-cart, with its team of well-broke cattle; long trains of pack-horses, with their cumbrous loads of charcoal, green fodder, or poultry; mounted horsemen, urging their steeds to their utmost speed, whenever the course is clear for but a short distance; and innumerable negro porters with wheelbarrows, or carrying huge loads on their heads—and some idea may be formed of the principal thoroughfares of the city. When the crops of sugar, molasses, and coffee, are brought here for exportation, they are sometimes so blocked up by the laden carts, and the whole place becomes so filled with the accumulated produce, that it is not unusual for the captain-general to grant permission to labour not only on the Sabbath, but during the whole of each night, which is never otherwise permitted among the warehouses and shipping.

"The *calle des Mercaderes* is the principal street for shopping, and contains many fine and extensive stores, filled with choice dry goods, jewellery, china, glass-ware, &c. These are designated by different names, which, however, have no reference to their contents—as 'the bomb,' a favourite one, 'the stranger,' 'virtue,' &c.; but the name of the owner never appears on the sign-board. The principal commercial houses have neither sign nor name, and can only be distinguished from the larger private dwellings by the bales of goods, or boxes of sugar and bags of coffee that are piled up in their lower stories; the merchant and his family, and clerks, living in the upper part."*

* Nearly all the retail shops are owned by Spaniards, and, with very few exceptions, none but men are seen behind the counters. The Parisian shop-girl, so celebrated for her skill in selling, might, however, here learn a lesson, not only in *overcharging*, but also in that assiduity in serving, that will scarcely permit the visitor to leave without purchasing something. Let the novice take care how he offers one-half the price asked for an article, if he does not wish it, for that, not unfrequently, is its real one; in almost every case, one-fourth will be deducted. "How much for this xippee-xappee?" (hippee-happee) I inquired of a hat merchant. "Twelve dollars." "I will give you six." "Say eight." "Only six." "It is a very fine one, señor, take it for seven;" and finding that was about its value, and longing to exchange my beaver for a Panama, more suited for the heat, I closed the bargain.

"You shall have this cane for a dollar," a Catalan said to me, as I was examining his various articles spread out under one of the arcades near the market; not wishing to buy it, I offered two rials, when he handed it to me. I gave him two *reales sevillanas*, but he insisted on *fuertes*, and I got my cane for one-quarter the price asked. A cane is an inseparable appendage to the exquisite, it is still used as an insignia of several professions. Thus, the doctor is here still recognised by his ebony cane with its gold head and black tassels, and some public officers are distinguished by theirs.

"Although the *calle des Mercaderes* is the Bond-street of Havanna, retail shops are scattered all over the city, which in a large part seems to be made up of them, the lower stories of many of the dwelling-houses being thus occupied. The ladies in shopping do not in general leave *their volantes*, but have the goods brought to them, the strictness of Spanish etiquette forbidding them to deal with a shopman; and it is only when the seller of goods is of their own sex, that they venture into a store. The custom of appearing in public only in a volante is so general, that some of my fellow-boarders, American ladies, who ventured to do their shopping on foot, were greeted in their progress by the half-suppressed exclamations of the astonished Habaneros, who seemed as much surprised to see a lady walk through their streets, as a Persian would to see one unveiled in his.

"I have said that Spaniards are chiefly the owners of the stores, the Creoles being seldom engaged in commerce. Those containing dry goods belong generally to Asturians, while the sale of groceries and provisions is monopolised by Catalans. These latter are an industrious, shrewd economical class; and have, perhaps in consequence of these qualities, received their *sobriquet* of Spanish Jews, which can only be construed into a compliment to the Israelite. A large portion of the commerce of the island is in their hands, as well as a very great part of its wealth. In the interior of the island they appear to monopolise every branch of trading, from the pack of the

"The substantial manner in which even the most unimportant building is constructed attracts attention ; every one seems made to last for ever. The walls of a single-story house are seldom less than two feet in thickness ; and to witness the erection of those of the larger ones, the masonry might readily be mistaken for that of some embryo fortification, destined to be cannon-proof. Many of the private dwellings are immense structures. I was shown one belonging to one of the Gomez, that cost 500,000 dollars ; and without the walls, facing the military parade-ground, another was nearly built, which, with its pillars and arches, occupied a front as large as some of the minor palaces in Europe. The value of real estate is very high in Havana ; a lot about sixty feet square, on which a store was afterwards built, sold a few years ago for 40,000 dollars, and the hotel of my host, that can accommodate from thirty boarders comfortably to sixty packed away, as they often are here, commands a rent of six thousand dollars. With such a value set on the land, but little is appropriated to yards, and the whole city may be said to be divided into squares of solid blocks.

"The architecture of the larger houses is heavy. They are so constructed as to form open squares in their centres, their only yards, where sometimes a few shrubs planted in boxes serve to relieve the eye, and upon which the lofty arches of the corridors look down. The lower story is occupied by the store-house, reading-room, kitchen, and stable ; while the common entrance is often half blocked up by the volante, its arched passage serving for a coach-house. From the side of this latter a wide flight of stone steps leads to the corridor of the second story, into which all the rooms open, and which forms the common passage to all of them. It opens itself on the central square, and the spaces between its heavy pillars and high-sprung arches, are generally closed with Venetian blinds. An air of rude grandeur reigns throughout the whole structure, the architecture partaking of a mixture of the Saracenic and Gothic styles. The chief hall or parlour is generally from forty to fifty feet long, twenty wide, and as many feet high ; while the windows and doors, reaching from the floor to the ceiling, render it cool and pleasant during warm days, but afford little protection against the damp northerners. The floors are all stuccoed or tiled, and the walls and ceilings not unfrequently ornamented with fresco ; while only here and there, a few panes of glass let into the thick shutters, serve to admit the light when they are closed."—*Notes on Cuba*, 1845.

This description, written by an intelligent citizen of the United States, differs little in character from some of the towns in Spain. The town houses are like fortresses.

"Every window accessible either from the street or the roofs of the neighbouring houses, is strongly barricaded with iron bars, while the stout folding-doors, guarding the only entrance to the whole building, would not be unfit to protect that of a fortress. They are castellated palaces ; and with their terraced roofs, their galleries and passages, their barricaded windows and ponderous doors, remind one of the olden Saxon strongholds, which Scott has so graphically described.

humble pedlar to the country tienda with its varied contents ; and in the maritime towns, many a commercial house, whose ships cover the sea, is theirs.

"Under the arcades near the markets in Havana, may be seen a number of shops not ten feet square, with a show-case in front, before which a restless being is constantly walking, reminding one of a caged wild animal that chafes for a wider range. At night the show-case is carried into his little cabin, which serves him for shop, dormitory, and kitchen ; and where he may be often seen preparing his frugal meal over a chafing dish of live charcoals. 'Five years of privation and a fortune' is his motto ; and not a few of the wealthiest Spanish residents in Cuba may date the commencement of their prosperity from as humble a source. The greater part of the trade with old Spain is in their hands, and they have latterly also extended their correspondence to other countries, and entered into active competition with the resident foreign merchants. The Catalan, moreover, furnishes the planter with all the necessaries for his negroes and plantation ; advances moneys for his crops, which he then sells on commission ; and often loans to him the requisite sums to erect his costly sugar works, or make his less expensive coffee estate, but all at an interest, ruinous in the present depreciated value of his crops."—*Notes on Cuba*.

“There is no West End in Havana; the stately mansion of the millionaire is often in juxta-position with the magazine of *tasajo*, jerked beef, with its sign of a large slice swinging over its door, and its putrid-like odours tainting the air; or its basement occupied by the *tienda*, with its stock of lard, garlic, and groceries, or the workshops of the humble artisan. Many of the dwellings are, however, of only one story, and their parlours are completely exposed to the gaze of every one, through their large windows, which open on the street. Two rows of arm-chairs, facing each other, are placed near these, where, during the evening, the older members of the family may be seen seated with their visitors. The younger ones stand within the windows, looking through the interstices of the iron bars at the pedestrians, and occasionally enjoying the conversation of an acquaintance as he loiters for a moment to pay a passing compliment.”

All sorts of goods are sold in the shops. The markets of Havana are well supplied: the fish market is extolled.

In 1610, an old hospital was the only place of worship in Havana, which the inhabitants complained could not accommodate one-eighth part of those who desired to partake of the sacrament. They petitioned the king, through their new bishop, to aid them in the erection of a church, and to remove the cathedral of St. Jago de Cuba to their city, as the latter place was badly fortified, and the church there had been already sacked by pirates of all its chalices, &c.* It now contains sixteen churches, built without much attempt at architectural beauty.

The great wealth once possessed by the monks in Cuba is well known. They owned large tracts of the richest soil on the island, and their revenues from their plantations were very great. Their possessions have all within late years been confiscated, and with them their power has passed away. Most of them have left the island, their number in Havana, by the census of 1842, being reduced to 106, to which may be added 188 nuns—all that now remain of those once numerous bodies. Two of their establishments, St. Augustine and St. Domingo, have been converted into storehouses by the government for its use, and severe restrictions are imposed on all who still retain the order.

Of all the numerous monastic orders, who must once have swarmed in the city, but one or two monks only are now occasionally seen passing through the streets. Although their rich cane fields and valuable coffee estates have long been advertised for sale by the government, few purchasers have as yet been found. Much of their landed property had been bequeathed to them for the express purposes of religion; and the fear that if bought by individuals, lawsuits might hereafter be instituted for its recovery, has deterred persons from buying, for no faith is placed in the government substantiating the claims of the purchasers.

“The church of San Felipe is the resort of the fashionable, and having seen service performed in the more humble edifice of Santa Clara, I took my seat the next Sunday among the worshippers of this. It was the anniversary of Santa Lucia, and the church was nearly half filled with gentlemen, among whom were a few military officers in rich uniforms. Not more than a dozen ladies were present, the rest of the females were coloured, and there were only a few children. The central benches were occupied by the gentlemen alone, but the two races were not separated; and here, as in Santa Clara, the

* *La Habana en sus primeros dias.*

coloured mostly were near the sacristy ; one old woman, in a shabby attire, kneeling on the very steps, and almost touching the gown of the officiating priest."—*Notes on Cuba*.

The cathedral is situated near the mansion of the captain-general, in the Calle del Ignacio, with its towers and pillared front of discoloured and worn stone.

But the chief object to which the attention of every visitor is invited, is a tablet of stone, inlaid in the wall, to the right and in front of the altar, with the bust of Columbus sculptured on it, in basso-relievo, above the opening of what is called his tomb.

The large convent of San Juan de Dios is now used solely for a hospital. It is a huge building, with high, unornamented walls without and within, of irregular construction, with a double gallery open to the central square court.

The great prison of Havana is a large building, erected by Tacon, during his residence on the island, and is situated without and near the gate of La Punta, not far from the sea. The fresh breezes circulate freely through it, and protects its inmates from the pestilential fevers which generate in crowded and ill-ventilated rooms. It is quadrangular, each side being about 300 feet long and fifty high, and encloses a central square planted with shrubbery, and watered by a handsome fountain. It can contain 5000 prisoners, and has had more than 1000 within it. The style of its architecture is simple but massive ; and, although unenclosed by walls, and built with care for the health of the inmates, its strongly ironed barred windows and doors, and the guard of soldiers, afford ample security. It is said, its erection did not add to the expenses of the city ; as it was built by the labour of the convicts, and with funds which, before the administration of Tacon, had been dishonestly appropriated by the civil officers, and of which he deprived them.

Tacon greatly improved the streets and passeos. The disorganised state of the country before the absolute rule of Tacon is well known. He put a sudden check to murder, robbery, and fraud, and impressed on a people, whose corruption was proverbial, some regard for honesty, which has outlived his administration.

The American writer whom we have quoted, says of Tacon,

"Neither the noble nor the mean, the rich nor the poor, were shielded from the law. There was none of that mawkish sensibility present with him that has become of late so fashionable with us, and of which our increasing cases of crime are in some measure the fruits. Punishment surely and quickly followed on the conviction of the accused ; and the head of the murderer was often hung over the spot of the assassination, as a warning to his comrades.

"In consequence of this even-handed justice, while he restored quiet to the country, and rendered the highway as safe as the public streets, he made many enemies among the rich, who had hitherto rode rough-shod over the poor ; and they preferred charges against him for unnecessary cruelty. He referred his judges to the annals of the court, and it was found that fewer punishments had been inflicted by him than by the former governors, during the administration of whom murder and robbery had stalked unchecked in open daylight, even in the streets of Havana.

"The means he adopted to effect this change, it is true, savoured in some cases more of the camp than of a court of law. The captains of partidos, county magistrates, were made answerable for the robberies committed in their districts, unless the robber was sent to Havana. Men were sometimes taken suddenly from the midst of their families, where they lived in fancied security, were shown the indisputable proofs of their guilt, and at once exiled from the island as inimical to its government."—*Notes on Cuba.*

During the carnival at Havana, the theatre is transformed into an immense mask-ball-room; and the streets are filled with the most grotesque characters. The latter frequently stop before the grated-windows and dance to the music of the guitar or tambourine, the family coming forward to the window to enjoy the outside drollery; others, habited as Turks, Jews, and other nations, parade the streets. On Good Friday, all the church-bells are mute; in some places their peals are made to imitate thunder. The yards of all the Catholic ships are also crossed, and a figure representing Judas is hung by the neck from some conspicuous point; in country villages, the *monteros* amuse themselves by shooting at him. The crucifixion, burial, and resurrection, are also acted.

The possessions of the church have been confiscated, but the tithes are still collected, and it is said, that most of the money is appropriated to other purposes than the support of religion. The people feel most sensibly every additional tax on their resources. The expulsion of the monks is an advance towards religious liberty; but no permission has been obtained to erect a chapel in Havana for Protestant worship.

The history of Havana comprises much of that of Cuba. It forms a key to the Gulf of Mexico, and all its channels. San Cristóbal de la Habana, according to Solis, Herrera, and other early historians, was at first established on the south coast of Cuba near Batabano; but on account of the insalubrity of the spot it was translated, in 1519, to its present site, on what was then called the Port of Carenas.

Its judicious selection became soon evident by the relief which it gave to many vessels that were wrecked on the neighbouring coasts, and on that of Florida, particularly on the *Matacumbi* rocks; where, besides others, the whole fleet of Don Rodrigo de Torreo, with the exception of one vessel was lost in 1733. It was chiefly from this port that the early discoverers of much of Mexico and of Southern America sailed.

The governors at first resided in St. Jago de Cuba, which, besides containing the cathedral, was near to Hispaniola, the head-quarters of the Spaniards. In 1538, Hernando de Soto took up his residence in Havana. In 1607, when the island was divided into two departments, the military chiefs and the bishop made it their chief residence. In 1538, it was surprised by a French corsair, who reduced it to ashes; and during this century and the beginning of the next,

* Morel, Vida de este obispo.

about 16,000 of the inhabitants of the islands flocked to the vicinity of Havana in order to avoid the depredations of the Buccaneers. In an attack on St. Jago de Cuba, the pirates sacked the cathedral; and their chief, Giron, carried off the bishop a prisoner, who, after eighty days' captivity, was ransomed for 200 ducats, 1000 hides, and 125 lbs. of beef.

In 1655, the English attempted to take Havana by assault, but failed with great loss.* In 1762, however, the English captured the city, attacking the defences by sea and land, making a breach in the Morro.† The British fleet, consisting of fifty-three vessels, carrying 2268 guns, was commanded by Sir George Peacock; and the army, numbering 12,041, and 2000 more from New England, Virginia, and Jamaica, under George, Earl of Albemarle. Three bomb-ketches, carrying twenty-four bombs, were attached to the fleet. To oppose this force, the Spaniards had sixteen vessels in the port, carrying 890 guns, while the city and the Morro were defended by 250 more, of which only one was a forty-two pounder, and six thirty-six pounders; besides these they had eleven mortars. Their army numbered 13,610 Spanish troops, and 14,000 militia and coloured men. The Morro was obstinately defended by Don Luis Vicente Velasco, who refused to capitulate, and was mortally wounded in the final assault of the English. He died in twenty-four hours after; and in perpetual commemoration of his indomitable courage, Charles III. commanded that there shall always be one of the vessels in the Spanish navy bearing his name. After retaining possession of the whole island for about one year, it was restored to Spain.‡

The number of war vessels built at Havana from 1724 to 1796 amounted to fifty-one ships of the line, twenty-two frigates, seven barks, nine brigs, and twenty-five smaller crafts; in all 110, carrying 5068 guns: six rated above 100 guns each, among which was the *Santissima Trinidad*. In 1844 the Cuba navy consisted of one frigate of forty-four guns, two or three steamboats built in the United States of five guns each, and sixteen other crafts, carrying from one to sixteen guns; in all carrying about 190 guns. The fortifications, whatever may be the number of guns under cover, have very few mounted, and those of not a large calibre. The harbour of Havana is one of the safest in the world, being land-locked on all sides but the north, where its entrance is only 1000 feet wide, with the gulf-stream flowing deeply before it. It has about six fathoms of water within, and is sufficiently capacious for about 1000 vessels.

* "The Spaniards say, the English were repulsed by a miracle, the memory of which is still perpetuated by the name of *los congrejos*, the crab miracle. It is related that they disembarked on the coast during a dark night, but became so alarmed by the noise of the crabs among the dead leaves of the mangroves, which, with the lights from an immense number of *cocutlos*, induced them to believe they had fallen into an ambush, that, filled with terror, they fled to their boats in the greatest disorder."—*Notes on Cuba*,

† The Morro was first built in 1633; the present one was erected on the ruins of the first, destroyed by the English. La Punta, La Estella, and Santa Catalina, were built in 1664.

‡ *Apuntes para la Historia de la Isla de Cuba*.

The first church in Havana was built on the spot now occupied by the mansion of the captain general; an attempt was made by the Senor Laso to demolish it, and build another on the site; but it continued to be used as a place of worship until the expulsion of the Jesuits, when the present cathedral was erected. In January, 1607, one of the prebends of the canon was suppressed, to give place for the tribunal of the Inquisition, which was held in the church of San Domingo. This huge edifice is now used as a government wood-yard.

Besides the Royal University, including a medical and law school, and chairs for the natural sciences, it contains several other learned institutions. Among these are the Royal Seminary of San Carlos y San Ambrosio, founded in 1773; a seminary for girls, founded in 1691; a free school of sculpture and painting, founded by the Sociedad Economica in 1818; a free mercantile school, and some private institutions for primary instruction. A museum of natural history was established in 1838, and the naturalist, Don Felipe S. Poye, appointed director; without the walls there is a botanical garden under the especial care of a professor of botany, Senor Auber. The means of education are, however, far from being ample, and many of the wealthier families send their sons to Germany, France, and the United States, and on their return they are greatly divested of Spanish prejudices, and no doubt impart liberal and intelligent views to those with whom they afterward associate.

The *Real Sociedad Economica de la Habana*, formerly called the Patriotic Society, was established in 1793; and is divided into three principal sections, on education, agriculture, and commerce and popular industry; a section, on the history of Cuba, has been added. It has a public library, in the old convent of San Domingo, that is open to all, daily, except on Sundays and festivals. This really useful society publishes a monthly report of its labours, which contains, also, besides contributions from its members, extracts from foreign journals. It records the general statistics of the island, and collects fragments of its early history: it has corresponding branches in nine of the principal towns of Cuba.*

The medical school was re-organised in 1842, and the present requisitions for graduation, are a classical education, and six years' study of medicine. *Foreign candidates* for licences to practise medicine or surgery, are now compelled to pass through a most rigid and expensive formality, which costs about 400 dollars. Several of the professors are Frenchmen.

* Among the subjects for which premiums were offered by this society in 1839, were the following: For the best Essay on Free Schools. For one detailing the advantages of free commerce to a nation. For one on the introduction of steam-power on sugar estates, and the foundation of a school for native machinists and engineers. For one on the necessity of augmenting the number of the white population in Cuba, and the possibility of substituting white for black labour on sugar estates, with calculations on the cost, &c. The diploma of a *Socio de Merito* of the Society was also offered to any one, who, after three years, produced 200 boxes of sugar from an estate thus worked. For one on the breed of cattle, &c. For one on the relative value of railroads and coasting vessels in Cuba. For one demonstrating the means to correct the habits of the country in its present state.—*Notes on Cuba.*

There are twenty-six printing establishments in Cuba ; thirteen of which are in Havana ; one founded in 1735, one in 1747, and one in 1787 ; and ten in the other principal cities. The periodicals published in Havana, besides the memoirs of the Patriotic Society, and a medical journal, are three daily papers, and one three times a week. Matanzas, Puerto-Principe, Trinidad, Villa-Clara, Santi-Spiritu, and St. Jago, have each one newspaper. The *Corres del Ultramar*, a weekly paper in Spanish, printed in Paris, and containing a condensed report of European news is also received in Cuba. Almost all the American and English newspapers find their way into the island, through the commercial houses in the maritime towns, but these are of no use to the Cuban, from his ignorance of the English language.

The American author already quoted, says—

“ The character of some of these papers, in point of literary contributions, is, however, as good as that of many in the United States ; while although the people dare not through their columns give utterance to the least complaint against the government, they are also free from that scandal that sullies the pages of some of the presses in our own country and England. Nor is the censorship confined to the politics of the island. A quack medicine, which had been puffed through its advertisement in one of the Havana papers, was found on trial to be deleterious, and to have caused the death of several persons. To guard against future similar accidents, a medical censorship was also established, to which the ingredients in all quack medicines must now be confided, before they can be recommended through the papers. Metaphysical, scientific, and moral subjects are often well discussed in the *Diario* and *Noticioso of Havana*, and rival in their excellence many of the contributions to our periodicals. Indeed, whoever takes up one of these papers will soon perceive that there is no lack of talent or learning in Havana, but it is confined to the few. The mass of even the wealthy population are not liberally educated, and of the poorer classes, very many are ignorant of the first rudiments, reading and writing. Over every effort to instruct them the mother country watches with a jealous eye ; and Cuba, as long as she remains subject to her, will have cause to mourn over the ignorance of her indigent classes.”

There is an opera-house generally well filled. The Tacon Theatre is said to be larger than the Scala of Milan. Havana has also musical societies ; the three principal of which are, the Filoharmonico, Habanero, the F. St. Cecilia, and the most exclusive, named simply the Filoharmonico.

The Royal Lottery was established in 1812 ; the tickets are drawn in Havana sixteen times in the year ; the prizes amount each of fifteen times to 110,000 dollars, and once to 180,000 dollars. The price of the tickets is four dollars, and so numerous are its agents that almost every small town has one, and pedlars hawk them about the streets and through the country, where many are bought by the slaves.

“ One has but to glance at this mammoth establishment and trace out its multiplied ramifications through the whole island, to perceive the incalculable injury it does to the morals of the people by fostering a spirit of gambling, the very counterpart to one of honest industry. Its very stability and just payment of drawn prizes only increase its baleful influence, tempting more to venture their gains in its vortex. The parental affection of a government, that thus creates a fund by fostering the vices of the people, should be strongly distrusted.”

There are 363 licentiates and doctors of law in the Havana, and eleven ecclesiastical advocates ; besides *escribanos* and *procuradores publicos*, notaries, and attorneys. It has also eighty-five medico-chirurgeons, twenty physicians, ninety surgeons, and fifty-seven sub-surgeons, who, in urgent cases, are permitted to render assistance to the wounded, or sick, until a surgeon or physician can be brought. A large number of barbers, eighty-eight, which receive licences to bleed, cup, leech, apply blisters and setons, and extract teeth, and are generally employed for these purposes by the higher branches of the profession.

There were, in 1842, 140 merchants in the city.

“ It is true that the enormous duties compelled some of them to adopt a certain mode of business with the custom-house, with the officers of which they held a tacit understanding. Recent measures have, however, almost completely checked this mode of introducing goods, and although the revenue of the crown has thereby increased, it will only be the means of encouraging smuggling.”

Cuba has not a single bank, the merchant drawing on his foreign credit. But although it has only a *specie* currency, in no country is there, in the form of bonds, promissory notes, &c., more paper money,

The Casa Real de Beneficencia was founded, or rather removed, to the present site, in 1794. The departments for the reception of insane females consist of a number of rooms, in front of which a wide piazza extends, and a spacious yard affords ample space for exercise. About sixty-five were lodged here in 1842, of whom not more than a dozen were whites, the rest being of every shade from black to brown. All their necessary wants are supplied.

There is an orphan boys' department, with dormitories in long, high, ventilated, clean halls, in one corner of which the cots used at night are placed away. A dining-room is attached and well provided for about 150 boys, who are also taught in a school. There is also an infirmary attached to this praiseworthy institution.

About 150 girls are also provided and taught in reading, writing, and needle-work.

The institution was at first intended only for girls, and by its rules three years' residence within its walls entitles each on her marriage to a dowry of 500 dollars.

“ The children, who are all whites, are received after the age of six years from the Foundling Hospital and other sources. The boys are kept until fifteen years old, and are then indented as apprentices. In 1842, a proposition was made by Monsieur Antonio Cournand, a student of the high normal school of Paris, and tutor in this institution, to educate the more intelligent boys for schoolmasters, to supply the schools on the island. It was agreed to by the trustees of the school, but the early death of the proposer has unhappily frustrated the completion of the design.”

In addition to the departments already described, the institution embraces also one for white female paupers, another for the free coloured, and one for indigent men. The Lunatic Asylum is also a part of it.

“ It contains besides, a place for the confinement of slaves arrested for crimes, from which it receives a considerable income, in the charges exacted from their owners for their lodging and board.”

The capital of the Casa de Beneficencia amounted in 1832 to 262,505 dollars, and by the report for the year 1842, read by its secretary before the Patriotic Society, its income for that year was 86,407 dollars, and its expenses 86,262 dollars. Of this sum 3300 dollars were for six doweries, and an additional one bestowed during that year. In the girls' department twenty-two had been admitted, twenty had been placed at service in private families, two had married, and two had died. In that of the boys' thirty-three had entered, thirty had returned to their friends, or had been indented, and one had died; 156 were left, and of the girls 151. In the Lunatic Asylum, fifty-four had entered, twenty-eight had left, and eleven had died, leaving 130; while in the female insane department, nineteen had entered, twelve had left, and seven had died, leaving sixty-three. Of the paupers, thirty-two had entered, twenty-six had left, and seven had died, leaving thirty-nine. The whole establishment gives shelter to 604 individuals, including forty-nine negroes of both sexes, and sixteen slaves belonging to it.

Another charitable institution, the Hospital of San Lazaro, destined chiefly to succour those unfortunate persons affected with the incurable *Kocubea*, or *Lazarino*, commonly called leprosy, a disease said to be peculiar to the West Indies. It commences its ravages on the toes and fingers, which first become atrophied and distorted; then a small blister appears on their extremities, and joint after joint decays and falls off, until sometimes the whole hand to the wrist, and the whole foot to the instep is wasted. Some recover with the loss only of the first and second joints of their fingers or toes; but the stumps remain insensible.

"This disease is probably ossification of the arteries, on which an inflammation supervenes, closing their calibers, and death of the part ensues, as in senile gangrene. It is regarded by the Creoles as contagious; and any one affected by it, if seen in the streets, is at once conveyed to the hospital. No instance has, however, been related of its spreading there to the nurses or physicians; and I have myself known the father of six children, who although long a martyr to this affection, never communicated it to them or his wife, although they visited him constantly in the cottage where he lived, separated from the other negroes, on a coffee plantation."—*Notes on Cuba*.

The road leading to the Campo Santos, or common cemetery, is through mean streets, but the entrance to it is through a pretty shrubbery of roses, pomegranates, papayos, &c., rills of water meandering through it. Palms rise in rows within, where negroes are perpetually digging graves. Near it stands a lunatic asylum.

The Military Hospital lately established in the building which was formerly the Royal Factory of tobacco, is an immense quadrangular building, enclosing several separate squares, and presenting the appearance of a large fortress, with massive high walls, well secured by gates. It was in these vast buildings that all the cigars of Cuba were made, and the tobacco packed for exportation, when the trade in that article was monopolised by a chartered company. Its capital was

1,000,000 dollars, and in less than fourteen years the property of the company amounted to 14,000,000 dollars; and the expense of boxes, superintendence, and labour, amounted annually to 46,000 dollars. All the employés and labourers, to prevent their smuggling, were compelled to live within the building.*

As a military hospital its arrangements are highly extolled by the American physician. It contained in January, 1842, 480 patients, and received that year 5622. Of these 5540 left it cured, 201 died, leaving 358 in its wards in January, 1843.

The comparative mortality of Havana may in a measure be learned from the statistics of its hospitals. San Juan de Dios, in 1842, lost 507 of 2299 who entered; San Francisco de Paula, for women, 181 of 479; San Lazaro, 18 of 106; the foundling hospital, Real Casa de Maternidad, 32 of 169; the military hospital, just described, 204 of 6102; in all, 942 of 9155—about 9.7 of the patients entered.

Of the monastic institutions, &c., that have been suppressed, Antonio de Lopez states that in his time there were twenty-three convents in Cuba, three of them contained nuns.†

Of the hospitals established by the religious orders, San Juan de Dios is the most ancient, having been founded by three brothers, hospitallers from Cadiz, in 1603. During the seventeenth century, according to its tables, it had 100 beds, and 800 sick persons were annually cured in it; but as the commerce and population of the city increased, it is probable that the number was greatly augmented; the order consisted of thirty brothers.

The hospital San Francisco de Paula, dedicated to the reception of women, was founded in 1665 by Don Nicolas Estébes Borges, a native of Havana, and dean of the church of Cuba. In 1730 it was destroyed by a hurricane, and was rebuilt in 1745.

La Cuna, the Cradle, was founded in 1711, at an expense of 16,000 dollars, and maintains both the nurses and the foundlings. In 1842 it received sixty-four children, in addition to the 105 remaining from the last year; of these, thirty-

* Arrate.

† Sebastian de la Cruz, one of the few saved from the wreck of the ship *Perla*. Covered with rags he entered the city, exciting by his actions the laughter and mockery of the mob, which at first treated him as a lunatic. But his obstinate silence, the imperturbable quiet and humility he manifested under their injuries, and especially the perseverance and courage with which he castigated himself, resting nightly on thorns, and rising covered with wounds, induced a more favourable opinion of his merits.

Soon after his entrance in the city, he appeared in public, dressed in the third order of St. Francisco, and went about exercising charity to all the sick he met, whom he conducted to his barracon. There he cured them, administering with great benevolence all the aid he could, to which end he applied the alms he received; and was at the same time their cook, their nurse, and their almoner. Thus did this singular man spend the remainder of his life, which terminated on the 17th of May, 1589, without informing any one who he was, or whence he came, on which subjects he ever preserved an obstinate silence. The account of his life is found in both Valdes' and Arrate's histories of Cuba, but the latter fixes the period of his death in 1778—so much do historians differ.

two died, twenty-three were sent out to gratuitous nursing, and two to the Casa Beneficencia, leaving 112 inmates: its income was 35,859 dollars, and its expenses 31,682 dollars. The name of its founder is conferred on all infants left without one under its protection. There are beside eighteen other public hospitals on the island, located in its chief towns.

Education.—No report on the state of education in the whole island has been made to the Sociedad Economica since that of 1836, by Don Pedro Maria Romy, and Don Domingo del Monte. According to that report, the island contained 41,416 boys, from five to fifteen years of age, and 32,660 girls, from twelve to fourteen. Havana maintained eighty-five white and six coloured male schools, in which 4453 white and 307 coloured boys were educated; and fifty-five white and one coloured female schools, with 1840 white and thirty-four coloured girls.

The second division of the island, St. Jago de Cuba, had thirty-two white and nineteen coloured male schools, and educated 1069 white boys; and nineteen white and five coloured female schools, with 347 white and 145 coloured girls. Puerto-Principe, the third division, had twelve white male schools, with 512 white boys; and seven female schools, with 239 girls, not classified. The whole amounting to 210 schools, with 8460 white scholars; and thirty-one schools, with 486 coloured scholars. Of these, 3678 received a gratuitous education; 1243 from the teachers themselves, and 2435 from funds provided by the Sociedad Economica and by subscriptions, &c.*

The report of 1842 states that the public funds for the gratuitous education of scholars, which not long before amounted to more than 32,000 dollars, has been reduced to 8000 dollars, sufficient to support only 457 boys, and 342 girls, in thirty-seven schools. The cost of instructing them in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar, was, for each pupil, one dollar monthly. In the large towns schools are general, but in the country districts scarcely any are provided with even primary schools. Nueva Filipina, with a population of more than 30,000, and containing the richest vegas of tobacco, has but one school for about forty boys, recently established.

The poverty of the labouring whites in the rural districts is one cause of this neglect of education; the children often have no clothes decent enough to appear at school, and some have none at all. But the high and oppressive taxes to meet, no one dares publicly own, is the depressing effect. The enormous exactions of Spain, the mother country, is the principal curse.

Crime.—No statistics of crime have ever been officially published: the following report affords some data by which the aggregate may be roughly calculated. Of the number of criminals, however, confined in the Havana prison in 1842, many are brought from a distance, and includes all within the jurisdiction

* *Memorias de la Sociedad Economica*, Vol. ii., p. 220—370. The report, written by Senor Del Monte was too liberal in its tone to be printed entire.

of the capital, a population of 631,760; the greater number from the ignorant population of the country.

A C C U S E D O F	Whites.	Coloured.	TOTAL.
	number.	number.	number.
Murder.....	11	38	49
Wounding	86	151	238
Robbery	132	137	269
Forgery and passing counterfeit money	14	7	21
Carrying prohibited arms.....	24	122	146
Quarrels (<i>reyertas</i>).....	68	46	114
Inebriety and riot.....	74	83	157
Serious injury.....	50	56	106
Rape and ravishment.....	12	4	16
Adultery.....	4	0	4
Uncontrollable anger (<i>servicia</i>).....	1	0	1
Prohibited games.....	44	31	75
Vagrancy.....	33	10	43
Deserters from those condemned to hard labour...	17	19	36
Deserters from the army.....	35	0	35
Non-observance of police laws	180	282	462
Suspected of various transgressions.....	192	191	383
Minor offences	108	64	172
Sent to the prisons of other jurisdictions	45	62	107
Total.....	1123	1219	2434

From this number must be deducted 107 sent to the prisons of the jurisdictions where the crimes were committed; also the convict deserters and the soldiers, 71. Of the 383 suspected persons, it is calculated that 283 at least will be found innocent, for persons in Cuba are often imprisoned on very slight grounds of suspicion. The 462 arrested for non-observance of police laws, cannot be classed among criminals, and, added to the preceding, make the number 928 to be deducted from the total, leaving 1506 criminals.

The same year 19 lunatics were confined in the prison until proved fit subjects for the Lunatic Asylum, making the total 2451; that for 1841 was 2551, at the end of which year 482 remained confined; and at the end of 1842, only 287, showing a decrease in crime. The comparative number of particular crimes in the two years, were as follows:—

A C C U S E D O F	1841	1842	Diminution.
	number.	number.	number.
Murder.....	74	49	25
Wounding	340	238	102
Robbery	372	269	103
Rape and ravishment.....	21	16	5
Incendiaries.....	5	0	0
Total.....	712	572	235

	1842
	number.
Liberated	1512
Confined for correction and hard labour.....	202
Condemned to hard labour alone.....	329
Deserters sent to their garrisons.....	69
Sent to the Casa Beneficencia	21
„ Lunatic Asylum	19
„ Section of Industry of the Sociedad Economica.....	2
Died in the hospital	7
Executed	5
Remaining	287
Total.....	2453

The following is a comparative statistic of crime and education, reported in 1837 to the Patriotic Society by the captain-general. Of 888 prisoners in the Cabanas, 494, charged with grievous offences, had not had even a primary education: to which may be added, 239 sick prisoners sent to the hospital San Juan de Dios, making the total 1127 persons accused of crime. The 4407 scholars in Havana and its suburbs, compared to the accused, give a percentage of 26, and to the 1105 convicted in the capitania-general, give 25 per cent. The same comparison between the scholars and prisoners, gave for Cuba (St. Jago) 24 per cent, Baracoa 28 per cent, Jiguani 21 per cent, Bayamo 5 per

cent, and for San Juan de los Remedios 20 per cent. The greater number of the prisoners in these places had not received even a primary education.*

Intoxication is very rare. With all the corruption of the bench, the murderer seldom escapes from punishment; and even the duellist receives no mercy, which crime is now said to be *unknown* on the island.

The *section of Industry and Commerce* has reported to the *Sociedad Economica* on the subject of apprenticeship, for 1842, that they have reclaimed from vagrancy 1411 boys, and placed them in situations to learn trades and the arts; of these, 257 were apprenticed in 1842. During the year this section also adjusted 620 quarrels between the masters and the apprentices, and their parents or trustees; so satisfactory were their decisions, that only five disputes were referred to a magistrate. Of the whole number apprenticed, seventy-two became masters of their trades; eighty-four changed masters by mutual consent; eleven died; 159 absconded, 153 of whom were retaken and replaced in their occupations. Fifty only were lost, many of these having been removed by their own parents or trustees; fourteen were sent to the workshops of the *Lanceros* as a punishment; and thirty-two were arrested for public offences.

The author of the "Notes on Cuba," describes the views from the Cabanas as truly magnificent. He says,—

"Far down lies a forests of masts, the tops of which are hardly on a level with the base of the fortress; and just beyond is the populous city, with its solid blocks of turretted houses occupying every space of the level land, and creeping half-way up its surrounding hills. Carry your eye southward, and trace the shores of the little bay everywhere studded with villas, its bosom covered by the large fleet of vessels from every nation, riding securely at anchor; and the summits of the adjacent heights crowned by forts, protecting while perfectly commanding the city—presenting, in their sullen grandeur, a strong contrast to the peaceful look of the latter. How dwindled to pigmies are the moving throngs below, yet how the sound of their mingled voices sweeps upwards; even here you can almost distinguish the words spoken. And that sudden burst of music from those numerous convent bells, playing their merry tunes, as if to arouse the buried monks once more to life's joys. Now they cease—and now again they all strike up a din, that would start a fireman from the sleep of death.

"But let us leave this spot, and following the parapet, separated from the fortress itself by a deep fosse, trace all its indentations and angles. What a city of embattlements lies on your left, as you pass sea-ward! line upon line, and battery over battery, all admirably supporting each other, and the whole on such a grand scale, that the place seems built to be garrisoned by giants. The very air of desertion which its long extent of unarmed embattlements presents, adds to its apparent strength: the largest cannon, in those embrasures, would look like a swivel on the deck of a line-of-battle ship; a thousand soldiers paraded on those stupendous works, would only impress the beholder with an idea of their weakness. Not a single human being is seen on its walls; its sentry-towers, hanging over the abyss below, are tenantless, and silence seems to hold her court within the massive enclosures. Suddenly, the roll of the rattling drum issues from its inner depths, and the trumpet speeds the message in repeated wild notes to the next fortress. It is the signal of the setting sun, and from battery and fort, and the war-ship's deck, is heard the evening gun; but the sudden tumult is over, the mingled

* *Memoris de la Sociedad Economica*

noise from trump and drum have ceased, and the spirit of the place seems again to slumber.

"We have now followed the parapet nearly a half mile; and beyond lies another fortress, the Moro, with its tall tower, its 'Twelve Apostles,' and its 'Pastor,' ranging the surface of the water, and completely commanding the entrance of the harbour, itself an almost impregnable stronghold; while to our right, within a mile, another height is covered by batteries that could sweep the whole intervening vale. Well might the palm of building be awarded to the Spaniards, but let us not forget that that of *keeping* has been conceded to the English, and let us profit by the history of Gibraltar. With a sufficient number of troops—a Spanish officer has said 8000—the Cabanas would be impregnable; and should this port ever again fall into the hands of the English, our whole southern coast and the Gulf of Mexico would be commanded by them, nor could any present power dispossess them of it by force."

In the arsenal of the Havana there have been built forty-nine ships of the line, twenty-two frigates, seven packet-ships, nine brigs of war, and fourteen schooners of war.

The suburbs, or *barrios extra muros*, cover more ground, and contain a larger population than the city within. The line of fortifications embraces a sort of irregular polygon, of an elliptical form, the greater diameter of which is 2100 yards, and the smaller 1200 yards in extent.

HARBOUR OF HAVANA.

The harbour, topographically, assumes the form of a capacious basin, with a narrow entrance. The entrance between the Moro and Punta Castles, is about 1500 yards long, and in its narrowest part 350 yards wide; and the harbour is said to be one of the safest and most strongly defended in the world.

The depth of water at the entrance is about eight fathoms; the rise and fall of tide nearly two feet. There is no bar or other impediment at the mouth, with the exception of a rock under the Moro Castle, close to the shore, on which there is five fathoms water, a flat rocky shoal extending about forty feet from the water battery. The length of this shoal from the inside of the Moro point is about sixty feet. At the time of the taking of the Havana by Peacock, several vessels were sunk in the entrance, about forty-five yards from the Moro; and their position is still marked by buoys moored over them. On the opposite side a buoy is moored to mark the Telino bank, about forty-five yards from the Punta Castle. No chart of the harbour has ever been published with the sanction of the government.

The wharves at which ships discharge their cargoes are not extensive. Ships lie, while discharging, with their stems or sterns to the shore; and thirty or more ships of the largest class, and an equal number of coasters, have frequently lain alongside each other. There is ample space for the extension of wharves. Casa Blanca is on the opposite side of the harbour: where the slavers who frequent the Havana have wharves, and ship-yards, in which vessels of all classes are fitted out, or repaired, and there is space sufficient for several hundred vessels to ride at anchor in front of the wharves.

On the south side of the entrance of the Havana there is a lighthouse, with reflecting lamps and a revolving light, which may be seen twenty-five miles distant.

The harbour can be known at a distance at sea by the hills of Managua, which lie inland south from the entrance; eastward as well as westward the land is low, with the exception of the Moro rock, with its lighthouse and fortifications. Six leagues to the eastward are the detached hills of Jaruco, of moderate height. Dolphin Hill is seen some four leagues more westerly.

The harbour is not very easily entered when the wind is north, or east-north-east, as the channel lies nearly south-east and north-west. The wind begins to blow about ten in the morning, and continues till sunset, which enables vessels to enter the port during the day. In the rainy season the winds are often unfavourable for entering: vessels at this time anchor on the Moro bank and warp in.

In the dry season, or when the *nortes* blow, there is some difficulty to put to sea, from the swell which sets in to the harbour's mouth. Generally vessels enter about noon, and depart about sunrise, excepting in the hurricane months, and later in the season when the *nortes* prevail. The anchorage on the Moro bank is tolerably safe. But there are so few dangers, that with ordinary care, there is but little risk either in entering or departing from this admirable harbour.

CHAPTER XIV.

RECENT CUSTOMS' REGULATIONS.—TRADE OF THE PORT OF HAVANA IN 1844.

The alterations in the new *pauta*, in 1846, are favourable to Spanish tonnage, and consequently go still more to the exclusion of British shipping from the import and export trade; although, in general, they do not materially affect the *consumption* of British staple-manufactures, as the duties augmented on some articles are reduced on others.

The duties on linens have been somewhat reduced, whilst those on cottons are increased, and some changes have been made in the classification.

The export duties also have been changed, and the tonnage duty on vessels carrying away molasses is now exacted; all foreign vessels, by an order just promulgated, are subjected to the payment of twenty-three per cent additional tonnage duty, as difference between their registered tonnage and the Spanish ton of Burgos, or abide by the measurement to be made here.

CONTRAST of Export Duties.

	By Foreign Ships to Foreign Ports.	By Spanish Ships to Foreign Ports.
Sugar, formerly . . .	50 cents per box . . .	37 cents per box.
„ now . . .	37 „ „ . . .	25 „ „
Coffee, formerly . . .	56 $\frac{1}{4}$ „ per 9lbs. . .	50 „ per 9lbs.
„ now . . .	20 „ „ . . .	12 „ „
Tobacco, formerly . . .	161 „ „ . . .	85 „ „
„ now . . .	150 „ „ . . .	75 „ „
Cigars, formerly . . .	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ „ per mil } any flag.	
„ now . . .	50 „ „ }	

Rum and molasses remain free of duty.

Copper ore to pay nine cents per quintal.

A fixed rate of duty on flour imported continues to be charged as follows :—

2 dollars 00 cents per barrel, Spanish growth, by Spanish ships.

6 „ 06 „ „ „ by Foreign „

8 „ 58 „ „ „ by Spanish „

9 „ 95 „ „ „ by Foreign „

Rice..... { Spanish, in Spanish ships, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ p. ct. Spanish, in foreign ships, 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ p. ct.
 { Foreign, in „ 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ „ Foreign, in „ 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ „

By royal order from Spain, instead of the rate of two dollars paid by each vessel entering the ports of Havana for the health visit; foreign ships are now subjected to the payment of one-third of a real for each ton of their measurement; *i. e.* a vessel of 300 tons has to pay twelve dollars four rials, whilst Spanish vessels are now subjected to only one-half of the above charge, or half a rial per ton; being upon 300 tons, six dollars two rials.

NAVIGATION OF THE PORT OF HAVANA, DURING THE YEAR 1844.

In 1844, there arrived at Havana, 67 British vessels, of 12,659 tons, 715 crew; with cargoes, value 63,312*l.* 9*s.* 8*d.*: and 65 vessels, of 12,491 tons, and 701 crew, departed; with cargoes, value 135,531*l.* 15*s.* 8*d.* Also, 516 Spanish vessels, of 71,985 tons; 851 American, of 160,102 tons; 24 Bremen, of 4353 tons; 16 Belgian, of 4418 tons; 21 Dutch, of 4053 tons; 22 Danish, of 4196 tons; 26 French, of 5738 tons; 17 Hamburg, of 3796 tons; 1 Kniphausen, of 322 tons; 5 Mexican, of 409 tons; 10 Prussian, of 2967 tons; 8 Russian, of 2975 tons; 8 Swedish, of 2293 tons; 2 Sardinian, of 435 tons; 2 Oldenburg, of 250 tons; 2 Norwegian, of 710 tons; and 2 Brazilian, of 437 tons:—making altogether, 1600 vessels, of 282,698 tons burthen.

BRITISH Trade and Navigation of Havana, during 1844.

ARRIVALS.				DEPARTURES.			
COUNTRIES.	Vessels.	Burden.	Value.	COUNTRIES.	Vessels.	Burden.	Value.
There were 67 British vessels that arrived, of which there were from Great Britain, with general cargoes.	number.	tons.	£ s. d.	There were 65 British vessels that departed, of which there were for Great Britain with	number.	tons.	£
Great Britain—coals	16	3,284	32,760 0 0	sugar.....	14	3,095	52,329
— railroad iron.....	13	3,463	4,558 0 0	Great Britain—produce..	2	324	9,333
— ballast.....	1	386	3,082 0 0	— copper ore.....	1	159	1,600
	1	292		— rum.....	2	393	3,800
From Great Britain..	31	7,425	40,400 0 0	— logwood.....	1	362	6,000
Halifax—fish.....	6	769	6,400 0 0	— general cargo.....	1	201	600
Guernsey—bricks.....	3	447	800 0 0	— fustic.....	1	102	
— ballast.....	3	321		— ballast.....	1	121	
Laguna—logwood.....	1	159	700 0 0	For Great Britain....	23	4,757	73,662
St. Thomas—ballast.....	1	230		New Orleans—ballast ...	2	240	
Barbadoes—ditto.....	1	186		Matanzas—general cargo.	1	184	
St. Jago de Cuba—ditto..	2	242		— sugar.....	4	1,093	23,306
— fish.....	2	206	2,100 0 0	— molasses.....	1	140	130
Arichat—ditto.....	1	65	600 0 0	— pork, &c.....	1	265	60
Belize—logwood.....	1	362	6,000 0 0	— tobacco.....	1	226	
— general cargo.....	1	201	600 0 0	— ballast.....	7	1,075	
Berbice—ballast.....	2	239		Jersey—sugar.....	2	483	6,300
Buenos Ayres—jerk beef.	1	248	4,000 0 0	Hamburg—ditto.....	1	386	5,000
Puerto Rico—pork, &c. ..	1	265	60 0 0	— produce.....	1	160	5,200
Jamaica—coals.....	1	223	75 0 0	Arichat—molasses.....	1	65	300
— fish.....	1	138	50 0 0	Gibraltar—produce.....	1	170	5,195
— ballast.....	2	279		Tabasco—ballast.....	1	230	
Matanzas—sugar.....	1	153	365 0 0	Mariel—ditto.....	1	159	
Newfoundland—fish.....	1	181	872 0 0	Cienfuegos—coals.....	1	527	88
Nassau—general cargo ..	1	26	240 0 0	— ballast.....	1	204	
Abaco—ditto.....	1	63	46 0 0	Guernsey—produce.....	2	217	7,050
Sierra Morena—ballast...	1	95		Jamaica—fish.....	1	150	1,500
Tampico—fustic.....	1	102		Baltimore—ballast.....	2	218	
From other parts	36	5,200	22,908 0 0	Trieste—produce.....	1	124	4,323
From Great Britain..	31	7,425	40,400 0 0	St. Jago de Cuba—ballast.	1	121	
Fractional parts		34	4 9 8	Malta—sugar.....	1	120	2,160
Total.....	67	12,659	63,312 9 8	Belize—ballast.....	1	254	
				Honduras—ditto.....	1	459	
				Sierra Morena—ditto....	1	95	
				Halifax—produce.....	2	248	1,053
				Nuevitas—ballast.....	1	61	
				Nassau—general cargo...	1	26	200
				For other parts	42	7,700	61,865
				For Great Britain....	23	4,757	73,662
				Fractional parts		34	4
				Total.....	65	12,491	135,531

In 1844, there arrived at the port of Havana, 49 British steam-packets, bringing 568 passengers, quicksilver, cochineal, gum copal, &c.; total value, 6,710,280 dollars. These vessels departed with 782 passengers.

CHAPTER XV.

OUT-PORTS AND TOWNS—PORT OF MATANZAS—PUERTO PRINCIPE.

THE city of Matanzas, which ranks next to Havana, as a commercial port, was previously to 1809 prohibited to trade to any foreign country, and restricted in its trade in many other respects, though forming an outlet for the products of the richest part of Cuba. It lies on the north coast, fifty-two miles east of Havana. Its harbour, which is rather limited in anchorage ground, by the mud brought down by two rivers, is sheltered by a ledge of rocks.

The bay, which is spacious, is protected from all winds but the north-east.

There are two channels, the one in at the north, the other in at the south, end of the ledge; but the southern is only deep enough for coasting vessels.

The most recent account which we have of Matanzas is by the intelligent author of "Notes on Cuba." He visited the place by land, and observes,—

"The country, after leaving the Carlotta and its beautiful valley, became rolling, and more sterile the nearer it was to the coast. It was only when we reached the San Juan River, which runs by Matanzas, that it became again clothed in the rich verdure of cultivation. Its borders were lined by farms, and on its occasional meadow lands, herds of cattle and troops of horses were grazing on the luxuriant herbage. About a league from the city we passed the only refinery of sugar established on the island, and that one owned by an American citizen. Its sugars have been proved, by a comparison, to be superior to the best in the states, preserving, in a measure, the flavour of the cane; still, in Cuba, the clayed article is preferred for its cheapness, the coffee and chocolate, here almost universally drank, masking its peculiar flavour. A market has, however, been opened for it in Spain, which will remunerate the proprietor for his enterprise and outlay.

"The outskirts of the town were composed of mean-looking, straggling, and often, deserted houses, very pictures of desolation and misery, with here and there a *tienda*, before the door of which was generally seen a number of pack-horses waiting for their driver, who was regaling himself with a glass of water after his dram of undiluted *aguardiente*. There were no gardens nor gentlemen's houses to be seen, although on the neighbouring heights were many beautiful sites; the grounds were sterile, and the sides of the hills covered only with a few stunted bushes and short grass. As we entered the more populous parts of the town the houses improved in appearance, but the greater number by far were of only one story, and presented irregular fronts, without any regard to architectural beauty. Our boarding house, the only one of the two in the city where English was spoken, was soon gained, and so fatigued had we been by our repeated promenades up the hills, that we took possession of our uncomfortable rooms with a great degree of satisfaction. The scene without was one, however, that could not fail to arrest the attention of even way-worn travellers. Close by us was the stone bridge of the Yumuri river, with the varied crowd of armed *monteros*, *volantes*, pack-horses, and ox-carts hurrying into or leaving the city; and beyond the Cumbre, its long extended sides covered with a rich carpet of yellow flowers to its very summit, with here and there a solitary building or clump of trees irregularly disposed on its gentle declivities. On the other side rose the high hill back of the city, with cultivated fields, and palms and cocoas, terminating abruptly at the deep gap separating it from the Cumbre, with thick woods skirting the whole brink of the precipice; and to the east the beautiful bay and its anchored fleet, and forts, and rocky shores. The city, itself, lay on a flat surface, and the first rising grounds of the neighbouring hill, between two small rivers which issued from the islands beyond, and depositing the soil borne down by their currents in the eddy formed just before the city, rendered the water there very shoal, and prevented the near approach of vessels. In consequence of this they are anchored about half a mile from it, and are loaded and unloaded by large launches of light draft.

"The first lines of this city were traced on the 10th of October, 1693, by Señor Manzaneda, under whose government it was founded. To the city itself was given that of San Carlos Alcazar de Matanzas: the last that by which it is generally designated, signifying the slaughter of a battle-field.

"The back country of Matanzas is rich in sugar and coffee estates, and after it was made a port of entry it increased rapidly in size and commerce. It now extends an arm across the San Juan river into the adjacent mangrove swamp, where an embryo city has sprung up, called the Pueblo Nuevo; and over the Yumuri, at the base of the Cumbre, another arm named Versailles. Including these two suburbs, its population in 1841 amounted to 19,124, of whom 10,304 were whites, 3041 were free coloured, and 5779 were slaves. The same year 480 vessels entered its port, of which 302 were American,

and 558 sailed from it ; paying to the government in tonnage and other duties nearly a million of dollars. Its importations amounted to 1,995,311 dollars, of which 434,599 dollars were for lumber from the United States ; and its exportations to 4,374,780 dollars, of which 3,733,879 dollars were for sugar, 351,733 dollars for molasses, and 163,385 dollars for coffee.

"It contains one church (the foundation of which was coeval with that of the city), which is now nearly completed, and another recently erected in Pueblo Nuevo ; a large and excellent hospital ; extensive barracks garrisoned by a regiment of Spanish soldiers, a theatre, and a cock-pit, like every other town in Cuba, and, for the benefit of my countrywomen I mention it—a solitary mantua-maker and milliner's establishment. Its public library, which in 1835, contained 695 volumes, now possesses over 1000, and reports made on it state the gratifying fact that it was daily more resorted to. In 1827 an adjunct society to the *Sociedad Económica* of Havana was established here, and now numbers nearly one hundred resident members ; it is divided into two principal sections, one on Education, the other on Industry and Commerce, the labours of which have been highly instrumental in sustaining their respective objects. The jurisdiction of Matanzas in 1835 contained 4460 children of both sexes, of whom only 815 received a primary education, and of these but 360 in public free schools ; the whole number of schools amounted to sixteen. The recent reports of its section on education have, however, given a more favourable view of this subject ; although it must be confessed, that learning is here, even now, at a lower state than in almost any other civilised country.

"The houses of Matanzas are mostly of stone, built like those of Havana in a very durable manner, with their windows as strongly barricaded with iron bars. But the number constructed of wood, the English one continually hears along the Bay-street, and the general cleanliness of the town, give to it somewhat of a home air. It wants the bustle of Havana, nor has it as many sources of amusements ; but to many its very quiet forms an attraction, and the proximity of its beautiful *passéo*, from which a fine view of its whole bay is obtained, its purer air, and the romantic scenery in its vicinity, induce many to prefer it as a residence.

"The manners here are similar to those of Havana ; the mornings are devoted to business, and in the evening those who have volantes and horses ride on the *passéo*, while the promenaders amuse themselves in gazing at the ladies. I must not omit to mention that at this time the merchants and sea-captains meet on the Bay-street, the Americans in front of a store owned by one of our countrymen, which from time immemorial has formed a kind of exchange for them. The billiard-rooms, of which there are several large ones near by, are then also crowded, chiefly by Spaniards and Creoles, who spend a large part of their idle hours at this game. Music parties are common ; social visitings are also kept up, it is conceded by all who have visited the two cities, that the fair of Matanzas bear the palm for beauty. The plaza is also a favourite resort at night, especially when the military band is present ; but here, as in Havana, the female form is rarely seen in the streets except in a volante, or at night. The Sunday morning is spent by but a very small proportion of the population in public worship ; shops are kept open all day, and only the closing of the custom-house, the police, and other public offices, and the cessation of labour in loading the shipping, distinguish it from other days. The afternoon is especially devoted by the negroes to amusements, and in numerous places on the hill back of the town, and in the Pueblo Nuevo, will be seen flags raised on high staffs. These point out the spots where they congregate and indulge in their national dances, for the different tribes introduced here from Africa retain all their custom and habit."

To the music of two or three rude drums, formed by stretching an untanned cow-hide over the extremity of a hollow trunk of a tree, the crowd of men and women, gaudily dressed, keep time with their hands. These balls are all under the protection of the civil authorities, who permit them to take place only on Sundays and other religious holidays ; they are never frequented by even the

lower classes of whites, and good order generally prevails among their sable performers. Over each slave tribe a king and queen presides, and so great is the influence exercised by the former over his subjects, that complaints made to him of the idle or vicious habits of any particular individual, not unfrequently, through his remonstrances, correct the evil.

Trade of Matanzas.—The importations are chiefly articles of food, and materials and machinery for sugar and coffee estates; most of its fancy and other goods are brought from Havana. During the last piracies in the Caribbean sea and the Gulf of Mexico, not a small portion of the spoils obtained by murder and robbery on the ocean, found their way, overland from Cardenas and other places, to this city, where purchasers were readily found; and smuggling was carried on extensively here. At present, the custom-house regulations are strict, and piracy is now unknown. The principal business mart is a long wharf projecting into the bay, covered by a shed.

There were, in 1844, forty-eight commercial houses in Matanzas, including several American, English, German, and French. Much of the products of the country is sold in the city, but a considerable portion is shipped for disposal in foreign ports. The counting-rooms are all in the dwelling-houses of the merchants, and as there are no banks in Cuba, each contains an iron safety-chest for specie; attached to the dwellings are store-houses for sugar, coffee, &c. The merchant and his clerks generally live under the same roof and dine at the same table.

Matanzas has eighteen physicians and surgeons, thirteen apothecaries, and several barbers, for the preservation of the public health; the last do all the bleeding, cupping, and leeching prescribed by physicians, and undergo examinations, before licences to practice this minor surgery are granted to them. There is but one cemetery for all who die in the city and its suburbs. The public peace is intrusted to thirty-four advocates, eleven notaries and seventeen attorneys. Matanzas is twenty-two leagues east of Havana, in latitude 23 deg. 2 min. 45 sec. north, and longitude 75 deg. 15 min. 42 sec. west of Cadiz. It is the seat of a governor, and includes within its jurisdiction a circuit of about six leagues. Within this space are 161 sugar estates, employing 29,696 persons 175 coffee estates, with 13,332 persons; and 1881 farms and other rural establishments, with 20,942 persons. The whole population amounts to about 85,050, of which 27,148 are whites, 4570 free coloured, and 53,322 slaves; only 21,070 of the whole reside in cities and villages.

There are several beautiful drives in the vicinity of Matanzas. The neighbouring valley of the Yumuri is splendid, with its back-grounds broken into sharp peaks, or now gently undulating;—

“Its cane-fields with their pea-green verdure, and the dark-green foliage of the

tall palms scattered irregularly over them ; its golden orange-groves and luxuriant plantains, with broad waving leaves ; its cocoas, its almonds, and its coffee, with here and there a gigantic Ceyba spreading out its massive arms high in air. As the mist, which in different parts hung over the scene, rose in fleecy masses, or gradually dissolved in the increasing heat of the day, and farm after farm, and cottage after cottage became lit by the bright sun's rays, throwing into the bold relief the illuminated portions, while the rest still lay in the deep shade of the Cumbre, a landscape was presented, that I had never seen rivalled even amid the picturesque scenery of Switzerland."

It was here that, in 1511, numbers of the aborigines were cruelly massacred by the Spaniards ; and the remnant, driven by bloodhounds to the surrounding heights, were forced in despair to throw themselves over their brinks into the river below, crying out, "*Io mori*," I die ; whence the name of the vale and river.

"On the ridge were several private residences, into one of which we were invited by its owner, who gave us that scarce article on a Cuba farm, a glass of fresh milk. In our descent to the city several varied and beautiful views of it, and of the harbour and shipping, were presented ; and when we reached the base of the hill, a short but rapid drive brought us into the gap through which the Yumuri escapes from the valley. High precipices rose on each side, their summits crowned with luxuriant growths ; while from the overhanging walls of the southern side immense stalactites of various hues hung in irregular and grand festoons, amid which the entrance to a large cave was plainly visible."—*Notes on Cuba*.

Puerto Principé.—The city of Santa Maria de Puerto Principe, is the capital of the central department of Cuba. It is situated in the interior. Mr. Turnbull says, "it stands between two rivulets, the Tinima and the Satibonico, which afterwards unite, and form the Rio de San Pedro, falling into the sea at the distance of forty miles in the direction of east-south-east. The trade of the place, as may be supposed from its inland position and its want of water carriage, bears no just proportion to the number of its inhabitants. In former times the *Hatos*, *Corrals*, *Realengos*, and *Potreros* in its neighbourhood, were the chief source from whence the capital of the island obtained its supplies of butcher's meat. At that remote period it was not uncommon for 20,000 calves to be sent in the course of a year from Puerto Principe to the Havana ; but the soil in the neighbourhood of the capital having been long ago exhausted for agricultural purposes, by a bad system of husbandry, and the sugar estates, which formerly existed there, having been definitively abandoned, the land has been laid down in pasture, and the markets of the Havana have thus become to a certain extent independent of more distant supplies.

"It was formerly the practice, when grants of land were obtained from the government, to fix upon a point which was to be declared the centre of a circle, the circumference of which was to become the limit of the concession. This method was probably resorted to for the purpose of avoiding disputes as to territorial boundaries ; but in the sequel it had only the effect of making these questions of boundary more intricate and more difficult of adjustment.

“The *Hato* was a circle, the diameter of which was four leagues ; that of the *Corral* being equal only to its radius—that is two leagues in extent ; the *Realengos* were the royal reserves, surrounded by the exterior curved lines of the *Corrals* and *Hatos*, to which the original name continued to be applied long after the land had been ceded to private individuals ; and the *Potrero* was a portion of land indeterminate in form or extent, but generally occupied, like the *Hatos*, *Corrals*, and *Realengos*, as breeding farms for the rearing of cattle.

“The *Hacienda Principal* is a generic name, including all but the *Potrero*, and is applied to breeding farms of the largest class ; while the *Potrero*, without any definite limit, is considered a place of inferior importance. In the course of time the curved boundaries of the *Hato*, the *Corral*, and the *Realengo*, have been gradually departed from, by the ordinary exercise of proprietary rights, by sale, deed of gift, or testamentary disposition ; as by another mode of exercising these rights, the original cattle-pen, as the breeding farms are called in Jamaica, has been converted into *Ingenios* or *Cafetals*, or otherwise applied to agricultural purposes. The dimensions of the *Hato* being so much greater than those of the *Corral*, the latter was formerly confined to the raising of pigs, goats, and sheep ; while on the *Hato* were bred the horse, the mule, and the cow ; but this distinction, like that of the form of the estate, is also becoming obsolete.

“The Bay of Nuevitas may be regarded as the harbour of Puerto Principe, although twelve leagues and a half distant, as there its produce is shipped, and and from thence it receives its foreign supplies. The want of all tolerable means of communication, however, for the carriage of heavy articles, is such as to threaten the greater part of the rich soils of the interior with a condemnation to perpetual virginity.

“A few years ago a new colony was formed in the Bay of Nuevitas, which at the end of twelve years from its commencement, could boast of a growing population, already amounting to 1153 ; of whom 709 were white, eighty-seven free people of colour, and 357 slaves.”

Puerto Principe is 151 leagues from Havana, has a population of 13,817 whites, 5784 free coloured, and 4433 slaves. Formerly the number of inhabitants was much greater. It was founded by Velasquez on the port named by Columbus del Principe, now Neuvitas ; but was afterwards removed to Camagüey, a pueblo of Indians, on account of the frequent invasions of the pirates.

Trade.—Its importations in 1841 were in value 186,825 dollars, of which 117,340 dollars were for provisions, and 10,000 dollars for lumber ; its exportations amounted to 74,595, dollars, of which 24,264 dollars were for sugar, and 11,000 dollars for tobacco ; forty-nine vessels entered its ports, of which seventeen were American, and it received in duties, &c., 51,935 dollars.

The jurisdiction of the city, which is the seat of a lieutenant-governor, extends over a population of 51,086. Of this 3010 are on ninety-one sugar estates, forty-seven on one coffee estate, and 20,091 on 2201 farms; the rest being included in the town and villages. The whites number 30,104, the free coloured 7599, and the slaves 13,383.

TRINIDAD, another of the seven cities founded by Velasquez, is situated a league from Port Casilda, on the south coast, and ninety from Havana. It is the seat of a governor, and contains 5877 whites, 4474 free coloured, and 2417 slaves. Its importations in 1841, amounted in value to 942,661 dollars of which 469,243 dollars were for provisions, and 170,090 dollars for lumber; its exportations to 1,157,571 dollars, of which 934,565 dollars were for sugar, and 138,534 dollars for molasses; 203 vessels entered its port, of which 116 were American, and it received in duties, &c., 351,559 dollars. It has jurisdiction over a population of 28,060, of which 7004 are on forty-four sugar estates, 905 on twenty-four coffee estates, and 1611 on 826 farms: the rest being in the towns and villages. The whites number 10,280, the free coloured 6092, and the slaves 11,688.

The southern coast has twenty-eight harbours and roadsteads, of which that of St. Jago de Cuba is one of the best in the world, and is protected by a *moro* and several batteries. The large Bay of Guatanamo has several harbours, and that of Jagua has a secure port, and is fortified; the latter has six square leagues of superficies. The Bays of Cortes and of Corrientes admit large vessels.

From the Cape de Maisi to the Cape de Cruz on the south coast; and from Bahia-honda to the Punta de Icacos on the north coast, the island is easy of access, and the coast-navigation excellent. The rest of its coasts is lined by reefs and islands, within which steamboat navigation is safe at all times of the year. The islands off the coast vary in size, from a few yards to several miles. One of them, the Cayo de Sal, supplies Havana with salt; others, like the Cayo de Vela, have good anchorage; while some are so surrounded by reefs, as to be almost inaccessible.

The Isle of Pines, *Isla de Pinos*, formerly so celebrated as a hiding-place for pirates, is on the south coast. It has 117 leagues of superficies, but is divided longitudinally by an extensive swamp, passable at only one point. The population is about 500, and has lately been put under a military and civil government. Its chief pueblo is Nuevo Gerona, on the west bank of the River Casas; the other is the pueblo of Santa Fé, on the river of the same name; it is watered by another river, the Nuevas. Its mountains are the Canadas, Daguilla, Sierra de Casas, and Caballos. The Bay of Siguanea is on the west coast, and terminates south-west at the Cape Frances—but a small part of this island is cultivated.

SANCTI SPIRITUS, founded by Velasquez, 100 leagues from Havana, is remarkable for the great majority of its white over the black population. The town itself contains 5296 white, 2722 free coloured, and 1466 slaves; its jurisdiction extends over 32,711 persons, of which 2258 are on forty sugar estates, 109 on three coffee estates, and 20,069 on 2668 farms. The whites number 21,969, the free coloured 4958, and the slaves 6784.

SANTIAGO DE CUBA, more frequently called Cuba, was founded by Velasquez. It is the capital of the eastern department of the island, and the seat of an archbishopric: and situated in 20 deg. 1 min. north latitude, and 76 deg. 3 min. 30 sec. west longitude. Its harbour is safe and commodious: the sea breeze generally blows into the harbour during the day, and the land wind blows out during the night.

It is 230 leagues from Havana, on the south coast. It is the seat of a governor, and contains 9326 whites, 7494 free coloured, and 7933 slaves. Its importations, in 1841, amounted to 2,631,421 dollars, of which 1,305,685 dollars were for provisions, 57,821 dollars for lumber, 232,674 dollars for cotton goods, and 242,300 dollars for linen goods; its exportations amounted to 5,993,631 dollars, of which 4,439,890 dollars were for copper ore, 553,168 dollars for coffee, 356,499 dollars for sugar, 368,868 dollars for tobacco, and 130,849 dollars for cotton; 160 vessels entered its port, of which 103 were American, and it received in duties, &c., 821,254 dollars. It has jurisdiction over a population of 91,512, of which 28,859 are in the town and villages, 8882 on 123 sugar estates, 27,456 on 604 coffee estates, and 26,315 on 3524 farms. The whites number 19,768, the free coloured 21,944, and the slaves 49,800. Four leagues west is the village of Cobre, or Santiago del Prado, containing 2000 inhabitants, chiefly occupied in working the copper mines in the neighbourhood.

There are but few British subjects established in the province of Santa Jago de Cuba, with the exception of those engaged in copper ore mining, and indeed few foreigners of any nation, with the exception of Frenchmen, who are found in considerable numbers in and around Santiago, both from France and her ancient colonies, or their descendants, and whose example and exertions have had great influence on the agricultural prosperity of the province; the cultivation of coffee may be traced to their immigration.

ARRIVALS at St. Jago de Cuba during the Year 1840.

Spanish, 132 vessels, 13,879 tons; British, 125 vessels, 23,667 tons; American, 124 vessels, 19,912 tons; French, 29 vessels, 6305 tons; Hanseatic Towns, 10 vessels, 1698 tons; Dutch Colonies, 6 vessels, 376 tons; Columbian and Mexican, 3 vessels, 200 tons; Danish, 1 vessel, 150 tons. Total number of vessels, 430; tons, 66,187.

The Spanish arrivals were chiefly from the Peninsula, with flour, wine, brandy, hardware, dried fruits, soap, spices, coarse earthenware, provisions, drugs, silk goods, and a few other manufactures.

The British arrivals were principally direct from Great Britain, in the employ of the English mining companies, with coals, mining machines, tools, powder, and various mining

supplies; and a few from British North America with cod fish, whilst twice or thrice per annum a vessel arrives from England with an assorted cargo of earthenware, hardware, sugar pans and mills, cutlery, iron in bars, powder, sheet copper, and glass.

American arrivals almost exclusively from ports in the United States with provisions and lumber, naval stores, and a few dried goods of native and other produce, candles, soap, furniture, manufactured tobacco, and some hardware and machinery.

The French arrivals were from France, with wines, brandy, silk goods, furniture, mirrors, oil, candles, perfumery, jewellery, porcelain, and a few other articles of luxury.

Hanseatic vessels, almost entirely from Bremen, with dry goods, hardware, gin, and some provisions.

The Dutch colonial arrivals were with dry goods, fruits, and provisions.

The Colombian and Mexican vessels were from Campeachy and Lisat, with grass bags, grass ropes, and hides.

The Danish vessels from Hamburg, with dry goods and provisions.

The imports of late years have been nearly equal, and are expected to continue so.

Spanish imports for the year 1841 amounted to . . . £ 319,320 sterling.

British imports for the same period 18,999 „

But in comparing the two amounts, the fact must not be lost sight of, that large quantities of British dry goods, hardware, and earthenware, are annually imported from *Jamaica in Spanish bottoms, chiefly on account of the difference in duty*, and also from the facility of selecting the above-named articles as cheaply in Kingston as in London, and with the advantage of being able to proceed there and return in three weeks' time. But it must not be concealed that the Hanseatic Towns interfere with British imports, underselling us in many German articles of hardware, cotton, woollen and linen goods, and glass; although generally speaking, they are considered inferior to British manufacture of a similar kind.

EXPORTS from St. Jago de Cuba during the Year 1840.

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.
	number.		number.
Coffee.....lb.	14,307,800	Fustic.....ton	1,400
Sugar, clayed...box of about 4 quintals	21,977	Lignum vitæ.....do.	100
— Muscovado..hogsheads of about 7 do.	4,915	Cigars.....box of 1000	5,000
Cotton.....bales of 105 lbs.	10,429	Hides.....	2,000
Molasses.....hogsheads of 117 galls.	1,600	Copper ore.....ton	27,142
Tafia and Rum.....pipes of 110 galls.	1,174	Doublons.....	2,289 3-17
Tobacco.....bales of 80 lbs.	21,865	Hard Dollars.....	12,867½
Wax, white and yellow.....lb.	30,225		

In 1845 there arrived at St. Jago de Cuba, 93 British vessels, of 28,537 tons' burden, value 10,301*l.*; of which there were from Great Britain 9 vessels with coals; 3,039 tons; 864*l.* value: 1 with machinery, 335 tons, 464*l.* value; 1 with powder, 328 tons, value 101*l.*, 24 with sundries, 8,348 tons; value 6,766*l.*; 33 in ballast, 10,966 tons: total from Great Britain 68 vessels, 23,016 tons, value 8,195*l.*:—2 from Jamaica with sundries, 415 tons, value 356*l.*, 1 with fish, 95 tons, value 250*l.*; 1 with rice, 31 tons, value 800*l.*; 5 in ballast, 662 tons:—9 from Grenada in ballast, 3008 tons:—1 from Bermuda in ballast; 265 tons: 1 with onions, 25 tons; value 300*l.*:—1 from St. Vincent in ballast, 200 tons:—1 from St. Thomas's in ballast, 194 tons:—1 from Curazoa in ballast, 211 tons:—1 from Porto Rico in ballast, 291 tons:—1 with fish, from St. John's, 124 tons, value 400*l.*:—total from other parts, 25, 5521 tons; value 2106*l.*:—total from Great Britain, 68, 23,016 tons: value 8195*l.*:—total, 93 vessels; 28,537 tons; value 10,301*l.*

There departed from Cuba 96 British vessels of 29,452 tons' burden, value 387,170*l.*, of which there were for Great Britain, 81 with copper ore, 27,010 tons, value 374,640*l.*:—1 with produce, 300 tons, value 8000*l.*: total for Great Britain 82 vessels, 27,310 tons, value 382,640*l.*:—2 for New Orleans in ballast, 200 tons; 1 for St. Cruz in ballast, 265 tons; for Jamaica with produce, 84 tons, value 1550*l.*; 1 for Manzanella with produce, 252 tons, value 2,000*l.*; 2 in ballast 411 tons:—1 for Montego Bay in ballast, 425 tons:—1 for Crinfucyos with fustic, 291 tons, value 200*l.*:—1 for Halifax with produce, 65 tons, value 130*l.*:—1 for Havana with fish, 124 tons, value 400*l.*:—1 for Bermuda with produce, 25 tons, value 250*l.*:—total for other parts 14 vessels, 9142 tons, value 4530*l.*:—total for Great Britain 82 vessels, 27,310 tons, value 382,640*l.*

During the past four years there has not been any great difference in exports, with the exception of coffee and copper ore.

The exports of coffee have fallen off greatly during the last three years, owing to excessive drought, but they may be expected to revive; whilst those of copper ore have greatly increased, excepting during 1846. The raising of the latter article only commenced fourteen years back, from which time it annually augmented in quantity, but its richness or quantity of metal contained in the ore has decreased.

CHAPTER XVI.

DESCRIPTIVE AND AGRICULTURAL SKETCHES OF CUBA.

So little that can afford information respecting Cuba, and which can be relied on, is known in Europe, that we have endeavoured to condense the various statements and descriptions upon which we can place any dependence,* and having reduced these descriptions to the least space that would be satisfactory, and interesting to the general reader, as well as to those who wish to acquire a more especial knowledge of Cuba.

This magnificent island is very generally surrounded with reefs, within which are many good harbours, and through which are many safe channels. Of the interior of Cuba, the descriptions hitherto given have been remarkably meagre. On leaving Havana for the interior, there was until the railway to Guines was constructed, scarcely twelve miles of road fit for an European carriage. The *rude volante* was, however, dragged over rocks and ruts. Railroads, constructed by Americans and by English engineers, and chiefly with British capital, have, to a considerable extent, opened the interior.

Havana, contains a population of above 100,000 inhabitants; four contain populations from 12,000 to 24,000; nine from 4000 to 9000; nineteen from 1000 to 3000; twenty-four from 500 to 1000; forty from 250 to 500; sixty seven from 100 to 250; and fifty-four below 100.

There are three principal high roads under the care of the Junto de Fomento but they are in bad condition even during the dry season, and quite impassable in most places during the rains. From each other roads branch off. The one from Havana to Pinar del Rio passes through Guatao, el Corralillo, la Ceiba del Agua, Capellanias, la Puerta de la Guira, las Canas, Artemisa, in the Partido San Marcos, fourteen leagues from Havana, las Mangas de Rio-Grande, Candelaria, San Cristobal, los Palacios. Hence west through the Paso real de San Diego, la Herradura, Consolacion, Pinar del Rio, forty-five leagues, San Juan y Martinez and Guane.

From Havana to Santiago de Cuba, the *route* passes through Jesus del Monte, Luyano, San Miguel, Santa Maria del Rosario, Tapaste, Aguacate, Ceiba-Mocha, Matanzas, Limonar, Taberna del Coliseo, Cimarrones, Guamutas, Ceja de Pablo, Alvarez, Rio de Lagua le Grande, Esperanza or Puerta de Golpe, Villaclara, Taberna del Escambray, Sagua la Chica, Guaracabuya, Santo-Espiritu, Rio Sasa, Ciego de Avila, San Geronimo, Arrogo Tinima, Puerto Principe, Guaimaro, Rio Jobabo, las Tunas, Paso del Selado, Rio Cauto, and Cauto del Embarcadero, Bayamo, Rio Cautillo, Jiguani, Rio Baire, and Rio Contramæstre, Palma-Soriano, Rio Yarago, Cuba.

* By far the most valuable sketches are those condensed from "Notes on Cuba," 1844, by an American physician.

From Havana to Trinidad the route passes through Francisco de Paula, Taberna del Dique, Lomas de Camoa, San Jose de las Lajas, Sitio and Lomas de Candela, los Guines, Pipian, Bermeja, Alacranes, el Caimito, Rio de la Hana-bana, Rio Damuji, in the Paso de los Abreus, Pueblo and Rio de Caonao, River Aumirs, and several other rivers, among which are el Gaudan, San Juan, Guacabo, and Trinidad.

After leaving Havana for the country, the road passes through well-stocked farms, and then trimmed by lime hedges, with white aromatic flowers, both equally impenetrable to man or beast; also, loose stone fences, built of the jagged, honeycomb coral rock that abounds throughout the country. These often enclose whole acres of luscious, fragrant pines, each sustained by a short foot-stalk above the circle of thorny leaves composing the plant, that spread low over the ground. The pine-apples often are observed in all stages of growth. Some small, and blue, with half-withered flowerets that blossom over the fruit; others ripe, large, and of a golden hue; and a few, the *hardier kind*, of a reddish-green tint.

Fields are passed of plantains growing thickly together, bearing above their small frail stems heavy bunches of green fruit, with their terminating cones of flowers; with long, small, fan-like leaves, torn in shreds by the wind. Beyond the immediate neighbourhood of the city, its gardens, its farms, and its hamlets, are extensive sugar and coffee estates, with their portreros and woodlands, were common. The royal palm appears on every side.

"Sometimes," as remarked by the American physician, "isolated, and irregularly scattered over fields of sugar-cane, with their tall, straight trunks, and their tufted crowns of long, branch-like, fringed leaves, waving and trembling in every breeze, and glistening in the rays of the sun, they stood, like so many guardian spirits of the land keeping watch over the rich verdure, stretching far in the distance beneath them. Now, in long avenues of turned Corinthian columns, their long leaves reaching across and intermingling, forming one continuous high-sprung arch, and their trunks glossed with white lichen as with paint, they led the eye to the country mansion of the planter, with its cool verandahs, and its back-ground of neatly thatched negro houses. While in the adjoining portreros, large clumps of them sheltered with their shade the cattle grazing peacefully at their feet."

Coffee estates are occasionally passed, with their low pruned shrubs closely planted, and divided into large squares by intersecting alleys of mangoes, palms, or oranges; the latter laden with their golden fruit, very pictures of lavish wealth. The author of the "Notes on Cuba," crossed the island to the southern town of Guines by railroad. He says,

"The whole country was under high cultivation, appearing like one immense garden; and as the unwearied eye roamed over the wide expanse, and revelled in the beauties which hill and dale, woodland and field presented, it seemed impossible that aught but peace could dwell amid such scenery; and the heart would insensibly be filled with vague desires after some such resting-place for the evening of life.

"In travelling the women and men quietly enjoy their cigars, and the white, brown, and black races amicably intermingled without apparent distinction. At one place, where we filled our tanks, a lad brought us some cake and wine, which quickly brought around him my fellow-travellers, the exquisites; I joined also, but when I opened my purse to

pay for my portion, I learned that one of them had already settled for the whole company. Knowing it to be the custom on the island that the first of a party who finishes pays the scot, I did not mingle my expostulations with my acknowledgments of the compliment.

“*Railroad Incidents.*—Again our cars were in motion, and when one-third on our route, all of us were eagerly looking out of the doors and windows at a large crowd, that was gathered about a car some distance on the road before us. Rumour had told us, that the last summer the whole train had been stopped, and a large sum of money, that it was conveying to Guines, had been taken from it by robbers, who had been apprised of its removal. Although it had no foundation, we did regard with some anxiety the crowd, but soon found they had gathered to look on the downward train that had run off the track. Not one of the Monteros, however, lent the least assistance to the few whites and negroes attached to the road, who were actively engaged in replacing the cars. To our regret, we learned that it would detain us two hours; so we willingly consented to be rolled back to the last posada we had passed. Having been dinnerless, we made a general rush to its bar, where, amid garlicky sausages, bread, cheese, and Catalan wine, we forgot our disappointment.

“The sun had just set when we continued our journey; but the landscape was even more beautiful in the soft light of declining day than under his bright rays. The east wind had subsided into a perfect calm, as it generally does at this time, and an air of peaceful quiet hung over the whole land. Even the fringed foliage of the palms was motionless, and drooped pendant from the long and gracefully arched stems; reminding one of those bunches of ostrich feathers worn by the *belles* of past days, which then seemed to add so much to a stately figure and bearing. About us, surrounding objects were mellowed by the increasing shades, but in the distance all was becoming indistinct; save the giant *seyba*, whose wide-spread foliage, like a vast umbrella, raised in mid-air, was still plainly visible above the gloom below; and the rows of tall palms on the bare ridges of distant hills, whose trunks and tufted crowns were painted in bold relief against the clear sky. Star after star now rapidly appeared, for here no twilight forms the imperceptible link between day and night, and the whole firmament was soon blazing with its thousand lamps.

“Now and then we passed an estate, on which the negroes were clustered around large fires of corn-husks, which they were removing from the Indian grain, preparatory to grinding it for their morning meal. The fires were sometimes close to the road, the flames shone brightly on their laughing faces, and their loud cries rang merrily on the air as they cheered us. At the stations where we stopped there were also lights, and some fires along the road; and many curious inquiries were made about the cause of our delay. But our attention was soon engrossed by a large basket of excellent Galician ham, bread, cheese, olives, cakes, sugar-plums, and wine, among which several bottles of champagne figured conspicuously. The whole had been furnished at our last stopping-place, by the liberality of a fellow-passenger, one of the officers of the road, who brought us all around it to partake of its varied contents.

“SAN JULIAN DE LOS GUINES, during the dry season, is one of the most pleasant inland towns in Cuba. It *then* lies on a hard, black soil, and is free from that fine dust so annoying on *red lands*. When the rains set in, about July, from the streams that meander around and through it, and the deep ruts in the road, I suspect it rests in a perfect quagmire. It contains 2500 inhabitants, who are remarkably civil to strangers; and being at the terminus of the railroad, forty-five miles from Havana, and only twelve miles from the south coast of the island, it has lately increased suddenly in importance. This is evident from the number of spruce modern shops intermingled with its ancient rusty *tiendas*, and a certain lively, flourishing look, quite uncommon in a Cuba country town. The invalid will here also escape, in a great measure, from the drifting rains of the northers; the mountains on the north almost completely exhausting the water of the clouds before they reach the town.

“The houses have before them wide, smooth pavements, protected from the rays of the sun by sheds, under which one might enjoy a promenade, even at mid-day. It contains a large church, painted blue, a favourite colour throughout the island for public

buildings. There was also a commodious and cleanly-kept hospital for the destitute in the town; barracks for soldiers; a public hall; a large ball-room; and, as a thing indispensable to the happiness of the inhabitants, a spacious cock-pit.

"The market was filled with bunches of green plantains, and heaps of yams, yuca, sweet potatoes, and other vegetables. A long shed covered the butchers' shambles, with large slices of beef and pork hung along its whole front. Jerked pork, a favourite preparation of the meat with the creole, was being prepared close by, being hung on poles over the smoke of a fire, having been first salted, the only method by which meat can be at all preserved in this perpetual summer clime.

"The market had a cook's-shop, with a dozen parrots in cages before it, which by their screams seemed to invite all within hearing to partake of the savoury dishes exposed on the shelves. Among them were several with a light green plumage and yellow crowns, brought from Mexico, and highly valued for the ease with which they are taught to speak.

"The creole is always an early riser. Several were engaged in sweeping the pavement; others were clustered around the milkman's cow, which had been brought to their doors, and were waiting their turn to have their pitchers filled from the slow stream, while a calf, tied just without tasting distance, looked piteously on, and at times showed signs of impatience, as he saw his morning meal borne off. When all had been supplied, he was muzzled, and his halter tied to the extremity of the cow's tail. One rush to her bag was tried, but the cruel netting frustrated all attempts to taste the bland fluid, and the poor animal quietly followed in the rear, as the man drove his cow to the houses of his other customers.

"At other doors, the *malhokero* was counting out his small bundles of green fodder, each containing a dozen stalks of Indian corn, with the leaves and tassels attached, the common daily food of the horse. On their pack-horses were bundles of small-sized sugar-cane, neatly trimmed and cut into short pieces; selected small, on account of their superior richness, offering to the creole a grateful refreshment during the heat of the noon. Others carried large matted panniers, slung over their clumsy straw saddles, filled with fine ripe oranges, the favourite and healthy morning repast of the native and the stranger, the healthy and the invalid.

"As the day progressed, mounted monteros were seen galloping through the streets, just arrived from their farms, each with his loose shirt worn over his pantaloons, its tail fluttering in the breeze, while his long sword, lashed to his waist by a handkerchief, dangled at his back. Then there was the heavy cart, laden with sugar for the railroad depôt, drawn by eight strong oxen, the front pair some twenty feet in advance of the rest; its freight of boxes, bound down firmly with cords, and covered with raw hides. By its side the driver stalked, dressed in a loose shirt and trousers, and a high-peaked straw hat with a wide rim on his head. He held in his hand a long pole, armed with a goad, with which he urged forward his slow-moving team; often striking the sharp nail, at its extremity, repeatedly into the flank of an ox, until the poor animal, in his endeavours to escape, seemed to drag the whole load by his sole strength. Other carts were returning to their distant sugar estates, laden with planks cut into proper sizes, and fastened in packages, each containing all the sides to make a sugar-box; thus put up, by our ingenious northern friends for the Cuba market.

"The arriero with his pack-horses, eight or a dozen in number, was also seen urging them on by his voice and the occasional crack of his whip; while they staggered under their heavy loads of charcoal, kegs of molasses, or of aguardiente, and the halter of each being tied to the extremity of the tail of the horse before, moved in single files, carefully picking their way.

"Beyond the town of Guines farm after farm occupied the grounds; some sowed in Indian corn as closely as oats, and just springing from the soil, intended for food for horses and cattle; or planted three together, the hills not two feet apart, already in tassel, and bearing the nearly mature grain. Others were covered with sweet potato vines and pumpkins; there was also a plentiful show of okra and tomatoes, salad, carrots, turnips, and tall, tree-like cabbages, with yuca, yams, and other tropical vegetables, giving to the grounds a thriving appearance. Long canals, with their sides embanked, traversed the flat plains; and their rapid streams, elevated above the level of the soil, in several

places were drawn off, to irrigate the land, by breaking through their sides, or by obstructing the course of the stream by temporary transverse dams.

"The rivers in this flat district, which run parallel, are generally elevated above each other, so that many streams run from one and empty into the river below. I was informed by an intelligent engineer on the Guines and Havana railroad, that in surveying its track, they found this to be the case of three considerable streams, and that on one occasion, during a freshet, those most elevated poured their superabundant waters, by side streams, into the lowest, and so swelled its current, that a large and strong stone bridge was carried away by it. The soil was black, resembling marsh-mud, but without a grain of sand in it, the substratum being lime-stone. It was so tenacious, that a bank a foot thick served to confine the waters of a canal, four feet wide, which, instead of washing away the sides, left a white deposit on them."

The foregoing descriptive sketches are considered applicable to many of the small towns and rural districts of Cuba.

The *portreros*, with grass which grows rapidly after the first rains, afford abundant pasturage to large herds of oxen and horses. Flocks of sheep and herds of swine, under the care of a few negroes, also feed near the unenclosed, cultivated fields of the neighbouring farms. These are frequently unprotected by either fence or hedge, and the cattle are either tethered or under the care of keepers, or were enclosed in *portreros*.

Negro Dwellings.—The cottages near Guines are all thatched with palm leaves, with walls of poles, and mud plastered thickly on them to fill up the cracks, the floors being of the latter material, and often not higher than the ground without. They contain little furniture; a table, one or two stools, a cot, and a few plates or jugs, composed all the household articles; while women, dressed often in a single gown, half open and half off their shoulders, and squalid, dirty children, with nought save the covering nature gave them, form the family group. The hut, however, is tastefully shaded by groups of cocoas,* or wide-spread foliage of an almond-tree, with the ground blackened by the last crop of nuts, and surrounded by plantains and orange and lemon-trees, with *air-plants* hanging from every grove, or covering the rocks, wherever the foliage of shrubbery protected them from the rays of the sun. The slaves all over the island are remarkably addicted to their dances, and fond of dress. Mr. Turnbull's account of the severity with which they are flogged and treated, is asserted by other authorities to be greatly exaggerated. But wherever there is slavery there must be harshness, and the last revolt of the slaves in Cuba was certainly suppressed with little regard to their lives. If the slave trade be continued, and the number of slaves conse-

* "The cocoas looked so tempting, that I asked the price, when a lad offered to procure four for one rial, or twelve cents. He was not more than ten years old, but without a moment's hesitation, he climbed up the tall trunk of one of the trees, resting only for a moment mid-way in his ascent; and holding on to the long branch-like leaves, crawled into its tufted crown, and pushed off the fruit with his feet, crying out to me from his giddy height to take care of my head. The little fellow seemed quite fearless, winding his light body between the leaves, more than fifty feet in the air, and stretching out his full length to reach the best nuts. He descended without being at all fatigued, and procuring a knife, cut through the rind and shell of the nut, which, when green is not hard, and offered the vegetable milk to me. In its unripe state it contains about a pint of refreshing fluid, and the pulp is then so soft, that it can, like cream, be scraped from the shell with a spoon, but neither has that rich oily flavour they possess when mature."—*Notes on Cuba.*

quently greatly increased, the Spanish creoles may well dread a period of as terrible retribution, as has been experienced in Hayti. We see little future security for Cuba unless the slave trade be entirely abolished.

Agriculture.—The statistical tables that we have already given exhibit the agricultural productions of Cuba, and greatly important as they are, the whole product is but small in proportion to the productive capabilities of the soil and climate of this naturally, perhaps, the most fertile of the large islands of the world. Cattle are reared, or rather without care, breed in numerous herds. The number is estimated at above 1,500,000.

Climate.—The climate of Cuba is not so regular as that of the more southerly islands, and from the proximity of the north-western parts to the continent of America, it is sometimes so cold that at some few hundred feet above the sea ice occasionally forms. Snow never falls, but hail-storms occur.

It has its rainy and dry seasons, but they do not appear to be regularly defined. Destructive hurricanes have sometimes devastated the country. Although some low parts are unhealthy, the climate of Cuba is generally salubrious. The island is frequented by invalids from the United States, and during late years inns and boarding-houses, with good accommodation, have been established by American citizens. Earthquakes occur in the eastern parts of the islands, and have occurred at Havana.

Forests.—Immense districts, especially the mountain regions, are still covered with trees. Among which the magnificent Ceiba and gigantic mahogany trees, with other valuable woods for furniture and for ship-building abound. Many varieties of majestic palms, plantains, and some beautiful hard woods also abound. Maize and the yuca grow in Cuba, and many esculent roots, and fruits are indigenous.

Animals.—One indigenous quadruped only has ever been known. This is the *huitia*, which resembles a great rat, about eighteen inches long without the tail. Amphibious animals are, however, abundant, among which are the alligator, *manati*, tortoise, and others. The domestic dog and cat have become wild, and it is said fierce. Large serpents, from ten to twelve feet long and from six to eight inches thick are met with, but not frequently. Mosquitoes and some other insects are numerous, and in the low districts very annoying. Asses and pigs are numerously bred. Birds of the most beautiful plumage enliven and adorn the country. On the coasts and rivers many delicious varieties of fish abound, with which the markets, especially that of Havana, are supplied.

Minerals.—It does not appear that much gold or silver have ever been found in Cuba. Excellent bituminous coal has been dug near Havana, and iron is said to abound in the mountains. The copper mines, near Santiago, were worked and abandoned in the seventeenth century. Three companies were formed some years ago to reopen and work these mines, which have been executed by great

outlay and by the aid of steam engines, with considerable success. The ore has been chiefly imported for smelting to Swansea. A copper mine in the neighbourhood of Santa Clara has been opened by an American company; but from its inconvenient access, and the less rich mineral, it has been worked with far less advantage than those near Santiago and Cuba. Bitumen, asphalt, marble, and jasper are also found, but the wretched means of internal communication, prevents profitable enterprise at any distance from the sea coast; except as far as regards the railway (forty-five miles) to Guines and four very minor railways, all constructed by Americans or Englishmen, the means of transport are both difficult and expensive.

Steamboats have for some years been established for conveying passengers between Havana and the other ports of the island; and this mode of visiting all places on the sea-coast has become convenient and speedy.

No foreigner can land in Cuba without procuring security to the government for good behaviour from a responsible inhabitant.

Revenue.—The revenue is derived from—1. Import and export customs duties; 2. *Impuestos interiores*, which comprise taxes on the consumption of butchers' meat, stamped paper, taxes on hucksters, municipal dues, sales of indulgences, taxes on cock-fights, lotteries, &c; 3. Deductions from church revenues; 4. Deductions from official salaries; 5. Royal lands, vacant tithes and estates, vendable offices, &c.; 6. Casual receipts, deposits, confiscations, donations, &c.

Government.—The captain-general is supreme military commander of the whole island, and civil governor of one of the two great divisions of Cuba. The governor of the other part (Santiago de Cuba) has independent civil power, responsible only to the court of Spain. The captain-general is, however, *ex officio* president of the *Audiencia Real*, or supreme court. The municipalities have their *ayuntamientos*, and the rural districts *jueces pedoneas*, or magistracies.

The History of Cuba consists of little more than a catalogue of captains-general and bishops from the time of the first Captain-general Velasquez in 1511 down to the year 1809-10-11, when the ports of Cuba were opened to the ships and trade of foreign countries. During which period fifty-four or fifty-six captains-general ruled, or misruled, this splendid island. General Tacon, who was appointed in 1825, was by far the most efficient of these governors.

The early settlement of Cuba, the expeditions to Mexico, the capture of Havana by Admiral Peacock and Lord Albemarle, and the opening of the ports, we have already noticed: for other particulars See Spanish Colonial Policy.

CHAPTER XVII.

PORTO RICO.

THE fertile island of Porto Rico lies between the latitudes of 17 deg. 54 min. and 18 deg. 31 min. north, and the longitudes of 65 deg. 39 min. and 67 deg. 21 min. west. Its length is stated to be about 100 miles, its average breadth about thirty-nine miles. Its area is computed at about 3750 square miles, being about 2500 square miles less than the area of Jamaica. A ridge of mountains extends from the east to the west end of the island. Some of the rivers which flow down are navigable for small vessels; and some of the numerous coves and inlets form good harbours for large ships. The soil is generally fertile and beautifully undulated. There are no serpents or other reptiles. There are large rats, which do great injury to the sugar-canes. The climate is generally salubrious; but some parts are subject to rains, others to droughts.

Porto Rico was discovered by Columbus in 1493. It was invaded in 1509 by the Spaniards from St. Domingo; and the natives, said to have amounted to 600,000 in number, were exterminated in a few years. The Spaniards, however, derived no profit from this island, though it subjected them to great expense. Ponce de Leon, who, in his voyage in search of the fountain of perpetual life, discovered Florida, was the explorer and conqueror of Porto Rico.

The laws of Spain, as administered in Cuba, are those of Porto Rico; and in the latter these laws are particularly severe in regard to foreigners; especially if Protestants. Every foreigner who arrives in Porto Rico, must, before he lands, find security on the part of responsible residents, for his good behaviour. After six months, the foreigner must either domiciliate or leave the island. In order to *domiciliate*, he must profess the Roman Catholic faith, the only religion tolerated. If he decline, he must leave Porto Rico. The difficulties in the way of a foreigner establishing himself in trade, even when domiciliated, are exceedingly vexatious, if not in partnership with a Spaniard. Foreigners, however, have managed, not only to overcome all religious scruples, but to become proprietors of estates; and the rapid agricultural improvement is chiefly owing to the enterprise of such foreign residents.

The population, according to an estimate based on the last census, is stated at 500,000 inhabitants of which there are not more than about 50,000 slaves. Free labour prevails in this colony. Among the slaves there are many of those, or their offspring, which the emigrants from Spanish St. Domingo brought with them; most of the settlers from the Danish, French, and British islands did the same.

Porto Rico is an agricultural colony. It has no manufactures, nor have any mines of gold or silver, or other minerals, been worked. Gold is found in small lumps and in dust in the streams running from the mountains, and a licence has been recently granted to a company in the island to search for gold, which is supposed to be abundant on the mountains. Copper, iron, and lead, have also been found. A coal mine has also been discovered, but in a place of very difficult access, twelve miles inland from Port Arecibo. There are two *salines* or salt ponds, worked by the government, but yield only about 157 tons of salt.

Roads.—There are no roads of any extent for wheel carriages in the island. All travelling is performed either on foot or on horseback.

According to an official return of 1840, the land cultivated, and its produce, were as follows :

ARTICLES OF CULTURE.	Acres in Cultivation.	PRODUCE.	Quantity.
	number.		number.
Sugar-cane.....	14,803	{ Sugar (Musc.)cwt.	414,660
		{ Molasses.....gallon	1,507,769
		{ Rum.....punchon	12,165
Plantains.....	30,760	Plantains.....load	617,826
Maize.....	16,194	Maize.....fanega	63,750
Rice.....	14,850	Rice.....	not known.
Tobacco.....	2,599	Tobacco (cured)cwt.	34,640
Manioc.....	1,150	Cassava breadload	30,419
Sweet Potatoes.....	1,224	Sweet potatoes.....cwt.	29,570
Yams.....	6,696	Yams.....do.	7,850
Pulse.....	1,100	Pulse.....do.	4,570
Coffee.....	16,992	Coffee.....do.	350,000
Cotton.....	3,079	Cotton.....	not known.
Fruit-trees and gardens	140		
Total in cultivation.....	109,587 or about 1-15th of its area.		

During the last fifteen years several thousands of acres have been cleared and cultivated. The lands are often held in very small lots.

In 1828, 1,437,285 acres were held by 19,140 proprietors. At the same time, 423 individuals were proprietors of estates regularly worked by slaves ; 275 of which were sugar, and 148 coffee plantations ; 17,440 proprietors were graziers who bred cattle, and who also raised provisions and some coffee. In 1802, there were but twenty-nine sugar estates in Porto Rico, and the total value of exports was estimated at 57,500 dollars.

We are indebted for valuable information relative to Porto Rico to Dr. Reid, who practised for some years as a physician on that island, from whence he has recently returned.

“Previously to 1828,” says Dr. Reid, in a manuscript report, “Porto Rico was little known to, and less frequented by, foreign adventurers on account of the policy observed by the government, which had a tendency to exclude strangers, by opposing almost insurmountable obstacles to their settlement.

“Anterior to the period alluded to, strangers were required to produce the most undoubted evidence of being Roman Catholics, in order to become domiciled, and they were also under the necessity of becoming naturalised after five years’ residence—I say that formerly this was not optional but of necessity. A stranger, before he was permitted to

land in the island, was to give security for good political and moral conduct, and supposing that he were able to surmount these difficulties, such were the jealousy and illiberality of the government, that few were induced to remain in a country where no prospect of success appeared.

"In 1828, however, the leniency and liberality of Don Miguel La Tone, then captain-general, by relaxing the rigour of former observances, had great effect in removing the impediments to the establishment of foreigners in the island. La Tone acted strictly according to the spirit of the Real Cedula of 1815, having for its object the encouragement of agriculture and commerce in the Spanish colonies.

"Thus the *Domicilio* was procured by paying a trifling sum of money, and by the applicant complying with certain formalities.

"Moreover, government encourages, instead of damping the enterprise of foreigners, convinced, that in this manner, the resources of the island would be best developed.

"In consequence of the encouragement given under the administration of La Tone, a considerable migration took place to this island.

"Planters from the neighbouring islands of St. Croix and St. Thomas, sold their estates and brought their slaves and capital to this country, lured by the superior fertility of the soil, and the liberality of the government as administered by La Tone.

"Several planters of the windward British and French islands, acted like the people from St. Thomas and St. Croix.

"Merchants also had their attention attracted towards this spot, and the establishment of several commercial houses now existing was effected.

"Seconded by foreign enterprise and foreign capital, this island has continued to prosper in a most extraordinary degree since 1828 ; and it has been a source of considerable revenue to the mother country.

"But notwithstanding the rapid improvement which has been effected in this island, and the continued increase of its staple exports, the improvement would have been still greater, and the export considerably larger, *but for the oppressive duties imposed upon all articles of necessary consumption, and the frequent heavy exactions made by the government towards the support of the war in Spain.*

"These causes, by lessening the profits of the planters, have prevented them from extending their estates. Thus the advancement in the cultivation of the soil is more due to the continued influx of new settlers with their important capital, than to the prosperity and advancing operations of the old.

"Some years ago the great mass of the inhabitants did not require, and scarcely knew, the use of many articles which are now considered necessary.

"Of this class are fine cotton goods, fine linens, and woollen cloths. The natives of the present day, throughout the island, are extremely fond of dress and fine apparel.

"Formerly people were very remiss in furnishing their houses ; at present they pay great attention thereto. I might multiply instances of the advancing civilisation of the natives, forming by far the greatest proportion of the population.

"All the machinery for the manufacture of sugar and rum is allowed to be imported duty free. Men cannot be imprisoned for debt, nor can a planter's estate be sold, or any of his implements of agriculture and manufacture, unless he owes at least two-thirds of the whole value of his estate.

"If a proprietor sell an estate or a house here, in order to remit the proceeds, he is required by the government to pay 10 per cent on the amount of the property sold."

The sugar estates and other plantations are situated on the sea-coast, near the capital and other towns or *pueblos*.

Slaves.—The following are the regulations respecting slaves in the Island of Porto Rico. In every large and small town there is an *alcalde* or justice of the peace, and likewise a person appointed for the special protection of the slaves, called a *syndic*, who is expected to see that justice is done them. It is always in the power of a slave to purchase his freedom as soon as he can collect sufficient money for the purpose, and the master and slave generally come to an understanding as to the price, if the value is not ascertained, which it generally is in most instances, from the master having purchased him, or from other circumstances; and he cannot demand more than he has given for him, unless he has taught him any trade, when he is allowed to demand a higher price, but the general value of a slave not knowing a trade is 300 dollars, though some are not worth so much, and if they cannot agree, the slave goes to the *syndic*, and one person is appointed on the part of the slave, and another on that of the master, and in case of difference, the *alcalde* appoints a third, who fixes the price, which the master is then obliged to take. The slave can also change his master, but the owner is not bound to sell him to any third person if he does not like it, unless either of the following can be proved against him, that the slave is either badly fed, badly clothed, ill-treated, or prevented from going to church, and if the slave can prove either of these, he may go before the *syndic* and demand to change masters; the *syndic* will then order the master to sell him within a specified time, and the slave has a paper given him, authorising him to find another master; the master is at the same time ordered to fix his price, and if no one will give the sum asked by the master within the time fixed by the *syndic*, he is obliged to take the highest price that may have been offered for the slave. All this appears favourable for the protection of the slaves, but it is principally those only in the towns who have means of access to the *syndic*, and can derive advantage from it, as in the country, when slaves have bad masters, it is a very difficult thing, and almost impossible for them to make a complaint, for from the strict regulations on the estates it is difficult for them to absent themselves a sufficient length of time to go to the *syndic*; when, however, they are well-treated, which they are in most instances, they are very careless about purchasing their freedom, as after they are free, they are subject to serve in the militia, and fill the parochial offices. When a slave has saved a little money, sufficient to purchase a head of cattle in which the island abounds, he can buy one with his master's consent, and let it to a free man, who pays him half the earnings, and the master sees that the slave has justice done him, whereas, if he were free, he would not have any master to protect him. Many slaves are enabled to become possessed of property much more than sufficient to purchase their freedom, but when they die, what they leave, becomes the property of the master. But the masters do not take it, but give it to the wives and children of the deceased. The distinction, however, between black and white inhabitants is not made with reference to colour, for a black, as soon as he has purchased his freedom, is considered a white man; and when they show any hair upon their heads, they are taken to serve in the militia, the Spanish law not allowing any but white people to become soldiers, except three companies of black artillery who are distributed over the island, having officers of their own, with white

officers over them. There are in the island seven battalions of militia of 1000 men each, formed from the free inhabitants, independent of the regular troops, who furnish guards over the different prisons in the towns and villages, keep the slaves in subjection, and perform other duties.

Labour.—The work on the estates is generally done by both free people and slaves; the free people are employed in planting and cutting the canes, and digging ditches, but it is very difficult to get them to work in the boiling houses, where the negroes are principally employed; on a few estates, however, where they are well-treated, and are regularly paid, they are employed at all the different works that are in hand indiscriminately with the negro slaves. What the proprietors of estates complain of with regard to the free labourers is, that they cannot depend upon their remaining with them, but from some whim, or from having managed to get a little money in advance, they will leave their work at once, frequently without giving any notice, and at a time, perhaps, when it may be very inconvenient to lose them: whilst they work, the general pay which the free labourers receive is six dollars, or about twenty-four shillings per month, and they receive the same provisions as the slaves, and the negro drivers have charge over them as well as the slaves.

The north and south sides of the island are so much separated by the chain of hills which run through it, that whilst they have had abundance of rain on the north side, the crops have considerably failed on the south side from the want of it. The British North American colonies have latterly purchased large quantities of Porto Rico produce, and the fish they import is more approved than that of either French or American curing.

SEAPORTS.—The following are the legal ports for the importation of goods, and the exportation of produce: San Juan de Porto Rico, the capital (population 30,000); Mayugas, Ponce, Guayama, Aguadilla, Cabo Royo, Guayanilla, Salinas, Manati, Patillas, Penuelas, and Saguerillo.

The principal articles exported are, sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, cotton, tobacco, hides, live-stock, dyewoods, lignum vitæ, and timber, ground provisions, rice, salt, &c.

The sugar is nearly all muscovado, no clayed sugar being made in this island. The molasses is of a good quality, and exported chiefly to the United States. The rum in general is inferior to that manufactured in the British West Indies.

The coffee of this island is of good quality, but scarcely equal to that of St. Domingo in flavour.

The cotton is of fair quality, but the fibre is short. Indigo is indigenous.

The tobacco, though rather inferior to that of Cuba, is of good quality for smoking. It is produced only by free labour.

The hides are large, and the cattle are of a good breed. Numbers of them are carried to the neighbouring islands. The beef is good, and the cattle of Porto Rico are superior to those bred on the Spanish main.

Sugar.—In 1814, scarcely enough of sugar was grown for the consumption of the island. According to official documents, the quantity of sugar exported from all parts of Porto Rico in 1839, amounted to 69,245,783 lbs., valued at 2,423,602 dollars. The ports of exportation were—

Porto Rico, 9,441,247 lbs.; Guayama, 16,054,672 lbs.; Aguadilla, 990,771 lbs.; Cabo Royo, 1,134,762 lbs.; Fayaribo, 583,158 lbs.; Areibo, 8,009,435 lbs.; Naguabo, 1,198,782 lbs.; Humacao, 1,364,246 lbs.; Guayanilla, 2,686,529 lbs.; Salinas, 414,728 lbs.; Manati, 56,025 lbs.; Patillas, 643,362 lbs.; Penuelas, 5615 lbs.; Saguillo, 20,000 lbs.

Coffee.—The quantity exported during the year 1839, was 8,538,362 lbs., valued at 853,836 dollars. The ports of exportation were—

Porto Rico, 517,471 lbs.; Mayugas, 3,187,200 lbs.; Ponce, 634,691 lbs.; Guayama, 304,248 lbs.; Aguadilla, 2,134,014 lbs.; Cabo Royo, 283,977 lbs.; Areibo, 507,289 lbs.; Naguabo, 3525 lbs.; Humacao, 86,300 lbs.; Guayanilla, 288,115 lbs.; Salinas, 416,562 lbs.; Manati, 57,036 lbs.; Patillas, 24,325 lbs.; Penuelas, 92,609 lbs.

Molasses.—3,311,719 $\frac{3}{4}$ gallons of molasses, valued at 496,759 dollars, were exported during the year 1839. The ports of exportation were—

Porto Rico, 288,627 gallons; Mayugas, 446,734 gallons; Aguadilla, 2942 gallons; Ponce, 915,637 gallons; Guayama, 1,244,098 gallons; Cabo Royo, 37,895 gallons; Fayaribo, 57,746 gallons; Areibo, 88,888 gallons; Naguabo, 47,500 gallons; Humacao, 56,509 gallons; Guayanilla, 91,382 gallons; Salinas, 4108 gallons; Manati, 1810 gallons; Patillas, 28,933 gallons.

Cotton wool.—1,183,973 lbs. of cotton, grown in the island, valued at 189,435 dollars, were exported during the year 1839. The ports of exportation were—

Porto Rico, 361,484 lbs.; Mayugas, 503,022 lbs.; Guayama, 8170 lbs.; Aguadilla 309,097 lbs.; Guayanilla, 2200 lbs.

Live stock.—The value of live stock exported is given for the same year as follows: horses, 7023 dollars; mules 4340 dollars; horned cattle, 20,303 dollars.

Coin.—In 1839, 1104 dollars' value of gold coin, and 129,285 dollars of silver, were exported, = 130,389 dollars.

Hides.—673,832 lbs., value 60,644 dollars, were exported, viz.,

From Porto Rico, 423,888 lbs.; Mayugas, 159,047 lbs.; Ponce, 6210 lbs.; Guayama, 8399 lbs.; Aguadilla, 72,320 lbs.; Cabo Royo, 4474 lbs.; Areibo, 520 lbs.; Humacao, 1918 lbs.; Guayanilla, 1239 lbs.; Manati, 625 lbs.

Wood.—The value of timber exported was estimated at 24,236 dollars.

Rum.—649 $\frac{2}{3}$ puncheons, value 16,241 dollars, were exported in 1839; viz.,

From Porto Rico, 277 $\frac{1}{4}$ puncheons; Pouce, 127 puncheons; Guayama, 107 puncheons; Aguadilla, 40 puncheons; Fayardo, 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ puncheons; Areibo, 53 puncheons; Naguabo, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ puncheons; Humacao, 4 puncheons.

Rice.—228,925 lbs. of rice, valued at 10,301 dollars were exported in 1839.

Dyewood.—The value exported in 1839, was estimated at only 494 dollars.

Corn.—Indian corn and grain were exported only to the value of 531 dollars.

Miscellaneous.—Articles not enumerated were exported to the value of 14,879 dollars, of which was salt to the value of 2701 dollars.

Total value of produce exported in 1839 was, 4,398,142 dollars, and in coin

130,389 dollars, and of 988,079 dollars, the value of deposited or bonded goods exported. The total value of exports 5,516,660 dollars.

The rum exported is chiefly to the British North American colonies.

Rum is immoderately consumed in the island by the common people.

EXPORTS FROM PORTO RICO IN 1840.

Sugar.—The quantity exported was 81,793,693 lbs., value 2,862,779 dollars.

Coffee.—The quantity exported was 12,450,114 lbs., value 1,254,011 dollars.

Molasses.—The quantity was 3,033,034 gallons, value 454,195 dollars.

Tobacco.—The quantity exported was 4,227,484 lbs., value 169,099 dollars.

Live Stock exported; viz.,

	dollars.
112 horses, value	4,783
86 mules „	4,308
3396 cattle „	117,090
Total	126,181

The total value of goods imported from Spanish ports, and under the Spanish flag, in 1839, was 725,740 dollars; in 1840, it was (with the exception of the imports from Cuba) 915,260 dollars. The amount from Cuba, under the Spanish flag, in 1840, was 217,232 dollars; under the British flag, 315 dollars.

The imports from the neighbouring colonies, under the Spanish flag, in 1839, amounted to 1,951,617 dollars; in 1840, to 2,617,489 dollars. In 1839, the value of imports from the United States amounted to 1,192,670 dollars; in 1840, to 1,279,477 dollars. In 1839, the value of the imports from Germany was 193,956 dollars; in 1840, 412,568 dollars. In 1839, the amount of Danish imports was 44,715 dollars; in 1840, none imported. In 1839, the amount of French imports, by French vessels, was 86,382 dollars; in 1840, it was 135,990 dollars. In 1839, the value of Dutch imports amounted to only 8615 dollars; in 1840, none imported. In 1839, British imports, under the British flag, amounted to 145,825 dollars; in 1840, under various flags, to 185,187 dollars. In 1839, Portuguese imports amounted to 833 dollars; in 1840, the imports, chiefly under the Brazilian and Spanish flags, from the Brazils, amounted to 517,982 dollars. In 1840, the value of imports from the continent of South America was 518,819 dollars.

EXPORTS 1839 AND 1840.

The value of exports to Spain, under the Spanish flag, in 1839, was 400,401 dollars; in 1840, under various flags to Spain, 1,816,658 dollars. The value of exports to Cuba, under the Spanish flag, in 1840, was 24,593 dollars. In 1839, the value of exports to the neighbouring colonies, under the Spanish flag, was 414,996 dollars; in 1840, under various flags, 671,058 dollars. The value of exports to the United States, under the American flag, was, in 1839, 2,588,482 dollars; in 1840, under various flags, 1,803,761 dollars. Exports to Germany, in German vessels, in 1839, amounted to 266,694 dollars; in 1840 under various flags, to 480,288 dollars. Exports to Denmark and her colonies, under the Danish flag, in 1839, 211,758 dollars; and in 1840, 14,386 dollars. Exports to France, under the French flag, was, in 1839, 292,054 dollars; in 1840, under various flags, 926,900 dollars. Exports to Holland, under the Dutch flag, in 1839, amounted to 10,965 dollars; in 1840, under various flags, to 18,180 dollars. Exports to Great Britain and her colonies, under the British flag, in 1839, amounted to 347,892 dollars; and under the same flag, in 1840, to 356,997 dollars. Exports to Italy, under various flags, in 1840, 148,825 dollars. Exports to Turkey, under the British and Austrian flags, in 1840, 11,282 dollars. Exports to the continent of South America, under various

flags, in 1840, 28,226 dollars. Exports to British America, in 1840, under the Spanish and British flags, 333,348 dollars.

In proportion as the Dutch and Danish trade with Porto Rico have been declining, the British has been advancing.

VESSELS of different Nations, which entered the Harbours of Porto Rico, in 1839.

C O U N T R I E S.	1839		1840	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
Spanish.....	675	28,975½	648	31,308½
American.....	439	63,933	349	48,518
Brazilian.....			2	571
Bremen.....	12	1,968	21	2,494
Danish.....	47	4,577	32	3,201
French.....	88	6,204½	178	15,202
Hamburg.....	4	737	9	494
British.....	114	9,336	36	10,830
Portuguese.....	2	157	1	88
Swedish.....	2	61	1	223
Prussian.....			1	130
Dutch.....	9	448½	0	442
Sardinian.....			3	223
Total.....	1392	116,397½	1281	113,501½

Cotton.—The exports of cotton were 621,218 lbs., value 99,394 dollars.

Hides.—The exports of hides were 607,385 lbs., worth 54,664 dollars.

Rum.—There were exported 1100¼ puncheons, value 27,518 dollars.

Wood.—The value of wood for building exported, amounted to 21,517 dollars; the quantity of dyewoods exported, amounted to 1,261,795 lbs., value 7882 dollars.

Salt.—The exports of salt were 3995 bushels, value 3995 dollars.

Miscellaneous Articles were exported to the value of 15,911 dollars.

Specie.—The exports of coin amounted to 121,346 dollars.

The export of merchandise in bond amounted in value to 1,424,251 dollars.

The total value of Porto Rico products exported in 1840, was 5,088,911 dollars; which, with the value of specie and bonded goods, 1,424,251 dollars makes the total value of exports, for 1840, amount to 6,634,588 dollars.

12,547,910 lbs. of sugar, it appears, were exported in 1840, over the quantity exported in 1839; from which it would also appear that the cultivation of sugar had increased in this ratio in the course of one year, a proof of the advancing state of the agriculture of the island.

3,911,752 lbs. more of coffee were also exported in 1840 than in 1839.

IMPORTS IN 1839 AND 1840.

The total value of 1839 was 5,462,206 dollars. The imports of oil, wine, and fermented liquors, amounted, in 1839, to 290,095 dollars; spices, 9856 dollars; preserved and dried fruits, 22,777 dollars; salted meats, 85,095 dollars; various kinds of grain, 1,079,542 dollars; lamp oil, lard, &c., 124,346 dollars; salted fish, 250,521 dollars; miscellaneous articles, 95,705 dollars.

THE Imports of Manufactured Goods were as follow :

ARTICLES.	Amount.	ARTICLES.	Amount.
	dollars.		dollars.
Cotton goods.....	844,018	Lumber.....	241,516
Woollen goods.....	69,590	Hardware and metals.....	814,131
Linen goods.....	610,033	Articles not included in the foregoing classification.....	711,389
Furs.....	119,904		
Silks.....	93,766		

THE total Value of Imports, in 1840, was 7,538,472 Dollars; viz. :

ARTICLES.	Amount.	ARTICLES.	Amount.
	dollars.		dollars.
Wines, oil, and fermented liquors.....	373,284	Lamp oil, lard, &c.....	215,577
Salted meats.....	89,536	Salt fish.....	343,711
Spices.....	11,686	Other articles not included under the preceding heads.....	150,738
Dried and preserved fruits.....	37,558		
Grain of various kinds.....	1,132,907		

MANUFACTURES Imported were as follow :

ARTICLES.	Amount.	ARTICLES.	Amount.
	dollars.		dollars.
Cotton goods.....	1,488,928	Lumber.....	314,324
Woollen goods.....	95,553	Hardware, metals, &c.....	557,033
Linen goods.....	907,098	Other articles not included in the preceding heads.....	1,371,556
Furs.....	266,101		
Silks.....	182,875		

OF this Number there entered at the different Ports, in 1839 and 1840 :

PORTS.	1839		1840	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
St. Jago (of all nations).....	289	28,168	432	37,294
Mayaguez.....	137	13,755	186	18,922
Ponce.....	208	23,397	234	
Guayama.....	203	23,930	196	19,382
Aguadilla.....	60	6,581	58	5,600
Cabo Royo.....	22	861	6	582½
Fajardo.....	121	4,095	80	2,754
Areibo.....	33	3,462½	19	2,768
Humacao.....	139	4,387	30	1,578
Naguabo.....	71	2,589	127	6,285
Salinas.....	40	2,410	2	51
Guayanilla.....	22	1,099	20	2,105
Manati.....	5	268		
Patillas.....	15	1,161		
Penuelas.....	8	115		
Laguillo.....	10	120		

Of these, 1322 vessels of 110,547 tons cleared in 1839, and 1100 vessels of 81,813½ tons cleared in 1840.

REVENUES derived from Customs and Tonnage Duties, in the Years 1839 and 1840 :

IMPORT DUTIES.	1839		1840		EXPORT DUTIES.	1839		1840	
	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.		dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.	dlrs.
Derecho real.....	710,345		1,131,805		Total import duties..	..	734,395	..	1,169,356
Consulado.....	8,484		14,298		Derecho real.....	215,514		259,470	
Arbitras locales.....	5,559		7,562		Deposito.....	4,512		7,069	
Deposito.....	2,063		3,414		Arbitras locales.....	18,012		22,223	
Weighage.....	7,944		12,277		Weighage.....	2,622		2,937	
		734,395		1,169,356			241,060		291,699
							975,455		1,461,055
					Tonnage duty.....	86,002		89,131	
					Anchorage duty.....	2,756		2,904	
							88,758		92,035
					Total dollars.....	..	1,063,913	..	1,553,090
					Total £ sterling.....	..	212,782	..	316,618

BRITISH Ships entered and cleared with Cargoes, in 1843.

P O R T S.	E N T E R E D.		P O R T S.	S A I L E D.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.		number.	tons.
San Juan.....	20	2,754	San Juan.....	19	2,690
Mayaques.....	16	3,116	Mayaques.....	15	2,671
Ponce.....	13	1,501	Ponce.....	14	1,652
Guayama.....	11	1,328	Guayama.....	11	1,356
Aguadilla.....			Aguadilla.....		
Naguabo.....	9	511	Naguabo.....	11	619
Areibo.....	3	535	Areibo.....	5	813
Fajardo.....	6	568	Fajardo.....	9	847
Humacao.....			Humacao.....	1	84
Guayanilla.....			Guayanilla.....		
Total.....	78	10,313	Total.....	85	10,732
Spanish ships.....	460	25,160	Spanish ships.....	442	24,167
American „.....	311	45,192½	American „.....	338	46,322½
All other nations.....	180	22,666½	All other nations.....	196	25,158½
Grand total.....	1029	103,331½	Grand total.....	1061	106,380½
British ships entered, in 1842....	88	7,700	British ships sailed, in 1842....	91	10,312
„ „ „ in 1843....	78	10,313	„ „ „ in 1843....	85	10,732
„ „ „ less in 1843	10		„ „ „ less in 1843	6	
„ „ „ more in 1843		2,613	„ „ „ more in 1843		420

COMPARISON between the General Arrivals and Sailings of Ships, in 1842 and 1843.

Y E A R S.	E N T E R E D.		Y E A R S.	S A I L E D.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.		Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.		number.	tons.
Ships arrived, in 1842.....	1348	125,025½	Ships sailed, in 1842.....	1217	127,019 6-12
„ „ in 1843.....	1029	103,331½	„ „ in 1843.....	1061	106,380
„ „ less in 1843.....	319	21,694½	„ „ less in 1843.....	156	20,639 6-12

IMPORTS into Porto Rico, in 1843, in which Great Britain was interested.

I M P O R T S.	Amount.		Sterling.	I M P O R T S.	Amount.		Sterling.
	dls.	cts.			dls.	cts.	
Imported in British Ships:—			£ s. d.	Imported from England:—			£ s. d.
From the West India Islands.	44,072	86		At Mayaguas.....	15,049	78	
„ England.....	15,049	78		„ Aguadilla.....	38,312	08	
„ Venezuela.....	9,539	59		Total.....	53,361	86	10,672 7 5½
„ Canada and Newfound- land.....	34,665	64		Imported from Canada and New- foundland:—			
Total.....	103,327	87	20,665 11 6	At San Juan.. 28,242 dls. 24 cts.			
Imported in Bremen Ships:—				„ Mayaguas. 9,260 „ 82 „			
From England.....	38,312	08		„ Guayama. 3,427 „ 15 „	40,930	21	
Imported in Spanish Ships:—				Imported from our West India Islands.....	44,072	86	
From Newfoundland.....	6,264	57		Total.....	138,364	93	27,672 19 9
Grand Total.....	147,904	52	29,580 18 1	Imported from Venezuela in Bri- tish ships.....	9,539	59	
				Grand total.....	147,904	52	29,580 18 1

Independent of the above, the imports from St. Thomas amounted to 1,470,022 dollars ten cents (294,004*l.* 8*s.* 5*d.* sterling), great part of which consisted of woollen, cotton, and linen goods, ironmongery and crockery-ware from England, the particulars of which cannot be ascertained.

EXPORTS from Porto Rico, in 1843, in which Great Britain was interested.

EXPORTS.	Amount.	Sterling.	EXPORTS.	Amount.	TOTAL.
	dlrs. cts.	£ s. d.		dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.
Exported in British Ships:—			Exported to England:—		
To the West India Islands....	24,886 09		From San Juan.....	125,153 10	
„ England.....	534,506 04		„ Mayaguas.....	287,913 54	
„ Canada and Newfoundland	123,167 92		„ Ponce.....	84,896 68	
Total.....	682,560 05	136,512 0 2	„ Guayama.....	53,112 40	
Exported in Danish Ships:—			„ Aguadilla.....	71,990 28	
To England.....	17,390 29		„ Naguabo.....	1,305 67	
Exported in American Ships:—			„ Arecibo.....	59,419 49	
To England.....	70,220 48		„ Fajardo.....	4,174 12	687,965 28
Exported in Hamburg Ships:—			Exported to Canada and New-		
To England.....	32,328 00		foundland:—		
Exports in Dutch Ships:—			From San Juan.....	53,307 76	
To England.....	33,520 47		„ Mayaguas.....	19,477 61	
Exported in Spanish Ships:—			„ Ponce.....	26,938 85	
To Canada and Newfoundland			„ Guayama.....	27,053 77	
	13,282 93		„ Naguabo.....	210 25	
Grand total.....	849,302 22	169,860 8 11	„ Aribó.....	5,526 24	
			„ Fajardo.....	2,612 47	
			„ Humacao.....	1,323 90	136,450 85
			Exported to our West India		
			Islands.....		24,886 09
			Total.....		849,302 22

	dlrs.	cts.	£	s.	d.
Total exportation, in 1843.....	5,054,905	86	=	1,010,981	3 5
„ importation, in 1843.....	4,342,540	67	=	868,508	2 8

Balance in favour of exports..... 712,365 19 = 142,473 0 9

N.B.—This includes the articles taken into and delivered out of bond.

COMPARISON between Imports and Exports, in 1842 and 1843.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.	1842	1843	Differences.
	dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.
Importation.....	5,757,403 84	4,342,540 67	1,414,863 17
Exportation.....	6,429,257 35	5,054,905 86	1,374,351 49
Total.....	12,186,661 19	9,397,446 53	2,789,214 66

COMPARISON between Duties, in 1842 and 1843.

DUTIES.	1842	1843	Differences.
	dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.
On importation and exportation.....	1,339,468 20	1,003,140 59	336,327 61
„ tonnage and anchorage dues.....	98,882 98	79,060 99	19,821 99
Total.....	1,438,351 18	1,082,201 58	356,149 60

EXPORTATION of the Principal Articles of Produce, in 1842 and 1843 :

R U M.		C O T T O N.		S U G A R.		H I D E S.	
1842	1843	1842	1843	1842	1843	1842	1843
hogsheads.	hogsheads.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
2097½	1157¼	882,064	350,553	91,906,688	71,039,913	567,052	509,777

C O F F E E.		C A T T L E.		M O L A S S E S.		T O B A C C O.	
1842	1843	1842	1843	1842	1843	1842	1843
lbs.	lbs.	heads.	heads.	gallons.	gallons.	lbs.	lbs.
12,878,953	7,756,335	3548	2595	3,037,725	2,280,115	6,693,953	7,453,145

VALUE of the Merchandise placed in Bond in 1843:

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Nation.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Nation.	Value.
		ships.	dlrs. cts.			ships.	dlrs. cts.
Cotton, from Venezuela, lbs.	87,700	Spanish.		Brought forward...	3,344,310½	..	518,406 96
— Brazil.....do.	2,234,672	do.		Cocoa (Carracas), from			
— Venezuela.....do.	125,583	Danish.		Venezuela.....cwts.	6,127½	Spanish.	
— ditto.....do.	93,950	Dutch.		— ditto.....do.	8,647½	Danish.	
Total.....	2,341,905½	..	406,699 68	— ditto.....do.	549	Dutch.	
Hides, from St. Thomas, lbs.	103,138	Spanish.		Total.....	15,324½	..	275,835 00
— Trinidad.....do.	1,100	do.		— (Carupano), from			
— Venezuela.....do.	62,528	do.		St. Thomas.....cwts.	174½	Spanish.	
— Brazil.....do.	1,400	do.		— Venezuela.....do.	4,668½	do.	
— Venezuela.....do.	557,873	Danish.		— ditto.....do.	761½	English.	
— ditto.....do.	72,500	Dutch.		Total.....	5,604½	..	70,056 25
— ditto.....do.	253	English.		— (Trinidad), from			
Total.....	798,792	..	71,891 28	Trinidad.....	3,304	Spanish.	33,040 00
Wheaten flour, from				Tobacco, manufactured,			
Spain.....barrels	900	Spanish.		from Cuba.....lbs.	354,500	Spanish.	
— United States...do.	1,376	American.		— leaf, ditto.....do.	114,650	do.	
— St. Thomas.....do.	488	do.		— (Virginia), United			
— United States...do.	125	Danish.		States.....do.	7,300	American.	
— St. Thomas.....do.	95	English.		— St. Thomas.....do.	9,900	do.	
Total.....	2,984	..	37,300 00	Total.....	486,350	..	26,433 00
Maize flour, from United				Total quantity..	3,854,898½		923,771 21
States.....barrels	530	American.		Other articles.....	..	..	83,200 61
— St. Thomas.....do.	99	do.		Total Value.....	..	..	1,006,971 82
Total.....	629	..	2,516 00	Value in £sterling].....	£201,394 7s. 3d.		
Carried forward....	3,344,310½	..	518,406 96				

VALUE of Merchandise Exported out of Bond in 1843.

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Nation.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Nation.	Value.
		ships.	dlrs. cts.			ships.	dlrs. cts.
Cotton, to Spain.....lbs.	2,381,941½	Spanish.	381,110 63	Brought forward....	3,269,526½	..	794,629 17
Hides, ditto.....do.	717,685	do.		Maize flour, to Cura-			
— St. Thomas.....do.	5,008	do.		cao.....barrels	80	Spanish.	320 00
— United States...do.	68,806	American.		Tobacco (Cuba), to Spain			
— ditto.....do.	74,900	Danish.		lbs.	18,706	do.	
Total.....	866,399	..	77,975 92	— St. Thomas.. ...do.	12,300	do.	
Cocoa (Carracas) to Spain				— United States ..do.	9,400	American.	
cwts.	13,939	Spanish.		Total.....	40,406	..	8,081 20
— Cuba.....do.	83	do.		— manufactured, to			
— St. Thomas.....do.	10	Danish.		Spain.....lbs.	366,500	Spanish.	
— Italy.....do.	79½	Sardinian.		— Venezuela.....do.	7,600	do.	
Total.....	14,111	..	254,007 00	— ditto.....do.	5,000	Danish.	
— (Carupano), to				Total.....	378,500	..	2,271 00
Spain.....cwts.	3,837½	Spanish.		Total quantity..	3,688,512½		865,301 37
— Cuba.....do.	25½	do.		Other articles.....	..	..	53,898 74
Total.....	3,863½	..	48,290 62	Total value....	..	..	859,200 11
— (Trinidad), to Spain				Value in £ sterling.....	£171,840 5s.		
do.	2,762	do.	27,620 00				
Wheaten flour, to Cuba							
barrels	300	do.					
— St. Thomas.do.	150	do.					
Total.....	450	do.	5,625 00				
Carried forward....	3,269,526½	..	194,629 17				

From which it appears that almost the whole of the cotton and hides put into bond were exported to Spain, and the flour was mostly taken out for home consumption; this last with other articles is frequently put into bond to delay payment of duties, and when the merchant's stores are full, no charge being made by government for rent. The cocoa was brought here because it could not go from Venezuela direct to Spain, but the trade having been since thrown open between the two countries very little more cocoa is likely to be brought here.

PARTICULARS of the Exports from Porto Rico in the Year 1843, specifying the Quantities and Values, under what Flag, or where Exported.

MUSCOVADO SUGAR.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.	Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
619,512	Spain	22,732 92	Spanish	1,860	United States	93 0	American
822,116	St. Thomas	28,774 06	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
345,742	do.	12,100 97	Danish	19,682		984 10	
59,771	do.	2,091 99	English				
1,267	Santa Cruz	44 33	Danish				
42,072	Curacao	1,472 52	Spanish				
4,820	do.	168 70	Dutch				
1,581	Turkish Islands	53 35	American				
35,662,415	United States	1,248,184 51	do.				
7,265	do.	254 28	Danish				
88,782	Bremen	3,107 37	Bremen				
120,021	do.	4,200 74	Danish				
428,428	Denmark	14,994 98	do.				
192,839	France	6,749 36	Spanish				
12,802,298	do.	448,080 43	French				
224,638	Guadaloupe	7,862 33	do.				
33,442	Hamburg	1,170 47	Danish				
460,671	do.	16,123 48	Hamburg				
406,094	Holland	14,213 29	English				
879,138	England	30,769 83	American				
496,865	do.	17,390 29	Danish				
867,237	do.	30,354 ..	Hamburg				
957,728	do.	33,520 47	Dutch				
12,444,460	do.	435,556 10	English				
51,893	Bermuda	1,816 26	do.				
420	Grenada	14 70	do.				
3,160	Newfoundland	110 60	do.				
3,244,703	Halifax	78,564 60	do.				
175,446	do.	6,140 61	Spanish				
8,368	Genoa.	292 88	do.				
391,337	do.	13,696 80	Sardinian				
157,864	New Brunswick	5,525 24	English				
71,032,413		2,486,134 46					
C O C O A N U T S.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
No.				Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
8,344	Spain	166 80	Spanish	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
5,400	St. Thomas	108 0	do.	1,860	United States	93 0	American
600	France.	12 0	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
7,700	Guadaloupe	154 0	French	19,682		984 10	
1,937	United States	38 75	American				
500	England	10 0	English				
24,481		489 55					
TORTOISE-SHELL.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
lbs.				Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
23	Spain	230	Spanish	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
2,800	Spain	70 0	Spanish	1,860	United States	93 0	American
250	Cuba	6 25	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
47,367	St. Thomas	1184 18	do.	19,682		984 10	
50,417		1260 43					
C O F F E E.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
				Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
892,499	Spain	89,249 90	Spanish	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
227	Cuba	22 70	do.	1,860	United States	93 0	American
416,295	St. Thomas	41,629 50	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
331	Santa Cruz	33 10	Danish	19,682		984 10	
495,301	United States	49,533 10	American				
419,325	Bremen	41,932 50	Bremen				
313,516	do.	31,351 60	Hamburg				
13,481	Denmark	1,348 10	Danish				
295,458	France	29,545 80	Spanish				
532,782	do.	53,278 20	French				
179,073	Humburg	17,907 30	Bremen				
326,030	do.	32,605 0	Danish				
1,143,895	do.	114,389 50	Hamburg				
355,842	Gibraltar	35,584 20	American				
240	England	24 0	Hamburg				
747,715	do.	74,771 50	English				
7,793	Bermuda	779 30	do.				
210	Newfoundland	21 0	do.				
12,475	Halifax	1,247 50	do.				
16,020	do.	1,602 80	Spanish				
198,718	Trieste	19,871 86	do.				
616,815	Genoa	61,681 50	do.				
331,370	do.	33,137 80	American				
420,964	do.	42,096 40	Sardinian				
258	Curacao	25 80	Dutch				
7,736,653		773,665 30					
C O C O A N U T S.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
No.				Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
8,344	Spain	166 80	Spanish	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
5,400	St. Thomas	108 0	do.	1,860	United States	93 0	American
600	France.	12 0	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
7,700	Guadaloupe	154 0	French	19,682		984 10	
1,937	United States	38 75	American				
500	England	10 0	English				
24,481		489 55					
TORTOISE-SHELL.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
lbs.				Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
23	Spain	230	Spanish	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
2,800	Spain	70 0	Spanish	1,860	United States	93 0	American
250	Cuba	6 25	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
47,367	St. Thomas	1184 18	do.	19,682		984 10	
50,417		1260 43					
C O F F E E.				CAST, OR FRIAGE COFFEE.			
				Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
892,499	Spain	89,249 90	Spanish	lbs.	Where to.	dls. cts.	In.
227	Cuba	22 70	do.	1,860	United States	93 0	American
416,295	St. Thomas	41,629 50	do.	17,822	Curacao	891 10	Dutch
331	Santa Cruz	33 10	Danish	19,682		984 10	
495,301	United States	49,533 10	American				
419,325	Bremen	41,932 50	Bremen				
313,516	do.	31,351 60	Hamburg				
13,481	Denmark	1,348 10	Danish				
295,458	France	29,545 80	Spanish				
532,782	do.	53,278 20	French				
179,073	Humburg	17,907 30	Bremen				
326,030	do.	32,605 0	Danish				
1,143,895	do.	114,389 50	Hamburg				
355,842	Gibraltar	35,584 20	American				
240	England	24 0	Hamburg				
747,715	do.	74,771 50	English				
7,793	Bermuda	779 30	do.				
210	Newfoundland	21 0	do.				
12,475	Halifax	1,247 50	do.				
16,020	do.	1,602 80	Spanish				
198,718	Trieste	19,871 86	do.				
616,815	Genoa	61,681 50	do.				
331,370	do.	33,137 80	American				
420,964	do.	42,096 40	Sardinian				
258	Curacao	25 80	Dutch				
7,736,653		773,665 30					

SMALL CATTLE.				SOLE LEATHER.			
Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.	Quantity.	Countries.	Value.	Ships.
No.	Where to	dlrs. cts.	In.	lbs.	Where to	dlrs. cts.	In.
6	St. Thomas	24 0	Spanish	11,764	Spain	2117 52	Spanish
11	France	50 0	French	1,600	Cuba	288 0	do.
17		74 0		5,981	St. Thomas	1076 58	do.
				400	United States	72 0	American
PEPPER OF THE ISLAND CALLED MALAQUITA.				19,745		3554 10	
lbs.				FUSTICK.			
9,583	Spain	574 98	Spanish	lbs.	Spain	509 0	Spanish
4,490	St. Thomas	269 40	do.	81,440			
14,073		844 38		GOLD COIN.			
MOLASSES.				oz.	Spain	28,408 0	Spanish
gallons.				177			
4,400	Spain	673 50	Spanish	SILVER COIN.			
916	St. Thomas	137 40	do.	oz.	Spain	4010 0	Spanish
2,158	Curacao	323 70	do.	4,010			
767	do.	115 05	Dutch	VEGETABLE MARROW, OR AQUACATES.			
1,907,463	United States	286,119 50	American	No.	St. Thomas.	404 50	Spanish
28,804	do.	4,320 60	Danish	80,900			
64,934	Halifax	9,740 10	Spanish	RUM.			
222,547	do.	33,382 05	English	bhds.	Spain	5,900 0	Spanish
20,192	Newfoundland	3,028 80	do.	236	Cuba	153 0	do.
27,844	Bermuda	4,176 60	do.	6½	St. Thomas	9,560 0	do.
9,280,115		342,017 30		382½	Curacao	3,050 0	do.
PLANTAINS.				121½	United States	2,856 25	American
845,900	St. Thomas	3,172 12	Spanish	114½	Denmark	1,725 0	Danish
6,200	Santa Cruz	23 15	do.	69	France	300 0	French
16,000	Curacao	60 0	do.	12	England	1,762 50	English
868,100		3,255 37		70½	Halifax	1,410 0	do.
LEAF TOBACCO.				56½	Newfoundland	812 50	do.
lbs.				32½	Genoa	1,400 0	Sardinian
655,175	St. Thomas	26,207 0	Spanish	56			
35,322	Curacao	1,412 88	do.	1157½		28,931 25	
2,422	do.	96 88	American	COTTON.			
3,171,103	Bremen	126,844 12	Bremen	bales.	Spain	48,805 60	Spanish
387,458	do.	15,498 32	Danish	305,035	France	1,987 84	French
715,925	Denmark	28,637 0	do.	12,424	England	5,295 4	English
995,352	Hamburg	39,814 8	do.	33,094			
1,223,510	do.	48,940 40	Hamburg	350,553		56,088 48	
248,425	Holland	9,937 0	Dutch	RICE.			
742	England	29 68	do.	4483	Spain	201 74	Spanish
17,711	do.	708 44	Bremen	125	Cuba	5 63	do.
7,453,145		298,125 80		150	St. Thomas	6 75	do.
ROLL TOBACCO.				4758		214 12	
112	Spain	336 0	Spanish	HORNS.			
17	St. Thomas	51 0	do.	9,675	Spain	146 51	Spanish
10	United States	30 0	American	1,596	St. Thomas	23 94	do.
139		417 0		3,000	Genoa	45 0	do.
CIGARS.				14,363		215 45	
boxes				WHITE SUGAR.			
1300	Spain	52 0	Spanish	7500	England	450 0	Hamburg
SNUFF IN BOTTLES.							
12 doz.	Spain	108 0	Spanish				
Other produce 12,045 34							

	dollars	cts.		£	s.	d.
Total Exports in 1843	4,195,705	75	as above	839,141	3	0
And exported out of bond	859,200	11	"	171,840	0	5
Total.....	5,054,905	86	or	1,010,981	3	5

VALUE of the different Articles of Exportation.

	dollars.	cts.	£	s.	d.
Rum	28,931	25			
Cotton	56,088	48			
Sugar.....	2,486,584	46			
Coffee	774,649	40			
Hides.....	45,879	91			
Cattle.....	86,351	0			
Molasses.....	342,017	25			
Other products	44,660	20			
Gold and silver coin.....	32,418	0			
Tobacco	298,125	80			
Total.....	4,195,705	75	or	839,141	3 0

PARTICULARS of the Principal Articles of Importation into Porto Rico in the Year 1843, specifying the Quantities and Values, under what Flag, and from whence Imported.

A R T I C L E S.	Whence.	Quantity.	Country.	Amount.	TOTAL.
		number.	ships.	dls. cts.	dls. cts.
Olive oil, in jugsarobas about 16 bottles {	countries. Spain St. Thomas	23,321 $\frac{3}{4}$ 28	Spanish do.	69,965 25 84 0	70,049 25
		23,349 $\frac{3}{4}$			
— in bottlesdoz. bottles {	Spain St. Thomas do. France do.	641 731 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 2 661	do. do. French do. Spanish	1,923 0 2,560 25 108 50 7 0 2,313 50	6,912 25
		2,066 $\frac{1}{2}$			
Brandy, Spanish ..demijohns, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 galls. each {	Spain St. Thomas Spain	9,253 12 396	do. do. do.	18,506 0 24 0 792 0	19,322 0
		9,661			
Beer...cuartillos, or bottles of 1 quart each {	Spain St. Thomas	1,200 840	do. Dutch	75 0 52 50	127 50
		2,040			
— in bottlesdoz. {	Spain do. do. do. United States Bremen France Guadaloupe England do.	7,879 11 88 24 251 818 152 226 113 304	Spanish American Hamburg English American Bremen French do. Bremen English	11,818 50 16 50 132 0 36 0 376 50 1,227 0 228 0 339 0 169 50 456 0	14,799 0
		9,866			
Gin, in stone bottles...bottles {	St. Thomas do. do. do.	196,948 312 5,640 24,000	Spanish Danish Bremen Spanish	24,618 50 39 0 705 0 3,000 0	28,362 50
		226,900			
Wine, white, in cask...arobas {	Spain Cuba Spain	11,666 $\frac{3}{4}$ 43 645	do. do. do.	14,582 92 53 75 806 25	15,442 92
		12,354 $\frac{3}{4}$			
— white, in cases.....cases	..	202	..	..	606 0
— Catalanian.....pipes	Spain	1,356 $\frac{1}{4}$	do.	..	27,130 0
— Bourdeaux.....bhds.	..	40	..	..	800 0
— ditto.....cases	..	1,711	..	..	5,133 0
— Marsallabhds.	..	388 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	..	4,856 0
— dittocases	..	244	..	..	732 0
Salt pork, in barrels...barrels {	St. Thomas do. do. do. St. Vincent Halifax United States	171 $\frac{1}{2}$ 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ 25 15 23 1,856 $\frac{1}{2}$	Spanish American French English do. do. American	2,576 25 172 50 187 50 375 0 225 0 345 0 27,843 75	31,725 0
		2,115			
Salt beef, in barrels...barrels {	St. Thomas do. Barbadoes United States do.	67 191 11 909 20	Spanish American do. do. Danish	536 0 1,528 0 88 0 7,272 0 160 0	9,584 0
		1,198			
Westphalia Hams.....lbs.	..	6,825	..	..	1,023 75
American do.do.	..	185,397	..	..	16,685 73
Figsdo.	..	45,164	..	..	1,806 56
Raisins, in boxes of 25 lbs. ea.	..	7,368 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	..	11,052 75
Carried forward					268,150 21

ARTICLES.	Whence.	Quantity.	Country.	Amount.		TOTAL.	
				dls.	cts.	dls.	cts.
Brought forward		numbers.	ships.			266,150	21
Rice..... lbs.	Spain	9,715	Spanish	437	18	63,596	56
	St. Thomas	157,022	do.	7,065	99		
	do.	81,307	American	3,658	85		
	Barbadoes	5,941	do.	267	35		
	United States	1,144,128	do.	51,485	76		
	do.	8,492	Danish	382	14		
	Halifax	6,652	English	299	29		
		1,413,257					
Cocoa..... cwt.	Jaracas	229½	..	4,126	50	7,911	8
	Campano	221 1-6	..	2,764	58		
	Trinidad	102	..	1,020	0		
		552 5-12					
Flour of Maizebrls.	St. Thomas	4,223	Spanish	16,892	0	79,550	0
	do.	3,871½	American	15,486	0		
	do.	128	French	512	0		
	do.	120	English	480	0		
	Santa Cruz	100	American	400	0		
	United States	10,426	do.	41,704	0		
	do.	120	Danish	480	0		
	do.	899	American	3,596	0		
		19,887½					
Flour, wheaten.....brls.	Spain	8,112	Spanish	101,406	25	462,184	38
	Cuba	750	do.	9,375	0		
	St. Thomas	7,541	do.	94,262	50		
	do.	5	French	62	50		
	do.	292	English	3,650	0		
	do.	1,074	American	29,425	0		
	United States	14,803½	do.	185,040	63		
	Barbadoes	205	do.	2,562	50		
	Guadaloupe	14	do.	175	0		
	France	60	Spanish	750	0		
	do.	30	French	375	0		
	Santa Cruz	2	Danish	25	0		
	Curacoa	30	Dutch	375	0		
	Trinidad	3	English	37	50		
	Spain	600	Spanish	7,500	0		
	St. Thomas	734	American	9,175	0		
	United States	1,439	do.	17,987	50		
		35,694½					
Lard..... lbs.	St. Thomas	45,325	Spanish	5,665	63	68,855	
	do.	510	English	63	75		
	do.	77,910	American	9,738	75		
	United States	423,006	do.	52,875	75		
	do.	4,089	Danish	511	12		
		550,840					
Butter lbs.	St. Thomas	21,887	Spanish	2,735	17	18,728	47
	do.	20,061	American	2,507	83		
	United States	105,952	do.	13,244	60		
	France	1,377	French	172	12		
	England	150	Bremen	18	75		
	Halifax	400	English	50	0		
		149,827					
Cheese, American.. lbs.	St. Thomas	13,817	Spanish	1,381	70	18,215	80
	do.	20,927	American	2,092	70		
	Barbadoes	238	do.	23	80		
	Guadaloupe	1,087	do.	108	70		
	United States	143,606	do.	14,360	60		
	do.	1,923	Danish	192	30		
	Halifax.	860	English	86	0		
		182,458					
— Dutch.....do.	Spain	2,013	Spanish	281	82	13,473	88
	St. Thomas	83,321	do.	11,664	94		
	do.	864	Danish	120	96		
	France	1,563	Spanish	218	82		
	do.	988	French	138	32		
	Guadaloupe	389	do.	54	46		
	Bremen	3,024	Bremen	423	36		
	England	4,080	do.	571	20		
		96,242					
Carried forward						998,695	28

ARTICLES.	Whence.	Quantity.	Countries.	Amount.	TOTAL.
	countries.	number.	ships.	dls. cts.	dls. cts.
Brought forward					998,695 28
Cheese, Spanish main....lbs.	Venezuela	25,216	Spanish		2,521 60
Herrings, smoked100	St. Thomas	125	do.	62 50	
	do.	78	American	39 0	
	United States	2,952	do.	1,476 0	
	Barbadoes	396	do.	198 0	
	Halifax	254	English	127 0	1,902 50
		3,805			
— salt.....barrels	St. Thomas	362½	English	1,268 75	
	do.	74	do.	259 0	
	do.	665	American	2,327 50	
	United States	3,273½	do.	11,457 25	
	Barbadoes	35	do.	122 50	
	Halifax	60	Spanish	210 0	
	do.	441½	English	1,545 25	17,190 25
		4,911½			
Cod fish.....lbs.	Spain	1,014	Spanish	35 49	
	St. Thomas	357,318	do.	12,506 13	
	do.	386,804	American	10,038 14	
	do.	81,824	Danish	2,863 84	
	do.	78,680	French	2,753 80	
	do.	8,201	English	287 04	
	Barbadoes	15,108	American	528 78	
	Guadaloupe	52,704	Spanish	1,844 64	
	do.	706,078	French	24,712 73	
	France	1,219	do.	42 66	
	Martinique	121,246	do.	4,243 61	
	do.	23,382	American	818 37	
	United States	3,879,378	do.	135,778 23	
	do.	7,797	Danish	272 89	
	Halifax	144,416	Spanish	5,054 57	
	do.	670,774	English	23,477 09	
	Trinidad	103,635	do.	3,627 22	
	Guadaloupe	46,825	French	1,638 87	
	United States	4,000	American	140 0	230,664 10
		6,590,403			
Mackarel.....barrels	Spain	87½	Spanish	350 0	
	St. Thomas	98½	do.	394 0	
	do.	185	American	740 0	
	do.	320	English	1,280 0	
	United States	5,602	American	22,408 0	
	Halifax	80	do.	320 0	
	do.	250	Spanish	1,000 0	
	do.	1,874½	English	7,498 0	
	St. Vincent	53	do.	212 0	34,202 0
		8,550½			
Garlic.....strings.	Spain	61,167	Spanish		15,291 75
Onionsdo.	Spain	239,206	do.	5,980 15	
	St. Thomas	41,119	do.	1,027 98	
	do.	11,417	American	285 42	
	United States	253,938	do.	6,348 45	
	do.	1,805	Danish	45 13	
	Halifax	14,000	English	350 0	
	Venezuela	15,563	Spanish	389 07	14,426 20
		577,048			
Potatoes.....barrels	Spain	3,111	do.	6,999 75	
	St. Thomas	156	do.	351 0	
	do.	34	English	76 50	
	do.	539	American	1,212 75	
	United States	4,086	do.	9,193 50	
	do.	100	Danish	225 0	
	France	57	French	128 25	
	Guadaloupe	18	do.	40 50	
	Bremen	50	Bremen	112 50	
	England	8	do.	18 0	
	Halifax	28	English	63 0	18,420 75
		8,187			
Carried forward.....					1,333,314 43

ARTICLES.	Whence.	Quantity.	Countries.	Amount.	TOTAL.
	countries.	number.	ships.	dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.
Brought forward...	..	..	..	..	1,333,314 43
Pastes, as maccaroni, &c...lbs.	..	189,668	Spanish	..	18,966 80
Salt.....cwts.	..	11,062	..	..	11,062 0
Cottons	..	..	..	..	365,781 34
Woollens	..	..	..	..	41,339 90
Linendrapery	..	..	..	..	296,785 56
Silks	..	..	..	..	86,421 05
Wooden hoops.....number	..	795,544	..	..	18,888 60
Hogsheads, made.....do.	..	5,615	..	..	8,422 50
— shaken.....do.	..	26,536	..	..	19,902 0
Staves.....do.	St. Thomas	50,000	Spanish	900 0	37,053 61
	do.	32,559	American	586 06	
	do.	2,214	English	39 85	
	Halifax	5,900	do.	106 20	
	Barbadoes	4,800	American	86 40	
	Trinidad	1,500	do.	27 0	
	United States	1,902,603	do.	34,246 86	
	do.	58,958	Danish	1,061 24	
		2,058,534			
Pine boards.....feet	St. Thomas	28,140	Spanish	562 80	83,266 72
	do.	421,377	American	8,427 54	
	United States	3,606,610	do.	72,132 20	
	Trinidad	64,000	do.	1,280 0	
	Halifax	43,209	English	864 18	
		4,163,336			
Wrought iron and in hoops..lbs.	Spain	1,384	Spanish	110 72	4,411 28
	St. Thomas	35,412	do.	2,832 96	
	United States	3,933	American	314 64	
	England	13,192	Bremen	1,055 36	
	do.	1,220	English	97 60	
		55,141			
— in plates and bars....lbs.	Spain	9,900	Spanish	396 0	4,106 48
	St. Thomas	82,425	do.	3,297 0	
	United States	10,337	American	413 48	
		102,662			
Gold coin	..	..	..	..	172,600 0
Silver ditto.....	..	..	..	..	5,910 0
Skins and leather goods.....	..	..	..	..	72,155 42
Linseed oil.....gallons	..	3,295	..	..	3,295 0
Fish oil.....do.	..	10,003	..	..	3,125 94
Iron nailslbs.	St. Thomas	298,537	Spanish	23,882 96	28,154 96
	do.	5,000	Dutch	400 0	
	do.	11,800	American	944 0	
	United States	21,000	do.	1,680 0	
	do.	3,000	Danish	240 0	
	England	12,600	English	1,008 0	
		351,937			
Glass	..	..	..	..	7,529 76
	Spain	..	Spanish	485 38	19,269 31
	Cuba	..	do.	150 0	
	St. Thomas	..	do.	14,877 32	
	do.	..	American	111 23	
	do.	..	Danish	417 87	
Ironmongery.....	do.	..	French	150 88	24,119 77
	do.	..	English	66 0	
	United States	..	American	1,763 4	
	do.	..	Danish	82 25	
	Martinique	..	French	236 54	
	Guadaloupe	..	do.	213 80	
	France	..	do.	715 0	
Agricultural tools.....	..	..	..	..	155,628 0
Soap.....lbs.	Spain	1,443,967	Spanish	144,396 70	155,628 0
	Cuba	11,412	do.	1,141 20	
	St. Thomas	39,527	do.	3,952 70	
	do.	4,520	American	452 0	
	United States	56,413	do.	5,641 30	
	Martinique	441	do.	44 10	
		1,556,280			
Carried forward.....					2,821,510 43

ARTICLES.	Whence.	Quantity.	Countries.	Amount.	TOTAL.
	countries.	number.	ships.	dlrs. cts.	dlrs. cts.
Brought forward.....	..	..	..	..	2,821,510 43
Crockery ware.....crates	St. Thomas	416	Spanish	12,480 0	
	do.	1	American	30 0	
	do.	1	Danish	30 0	
	France	25	French.	750 0	
	England	37	English	1,110 0	14,400 0
		480			
Clay earthenware.....dozen	Spain	4374	Spanish	4,374 0	
	St. Thomas	278	do.	278 0	
	do.	44	French	44 0	
	Martinique	203	do.	203 0	
	Guadaloupe	86	do.	86 0	
	St. Thomas	20	English	20 0	5,005 0
		5005			
Medicines.....	..	..	..	..	17,799 22
	Spain	..	Spanish	5,008 18	
	Cuba	..	do.	289 75	
	St. Thomas	..	do.	17,861 70	
	do.	..	American	600 56	
	do.	..	Hamburg	784 23	
	do.	..	French	24 75	
Haberdashery.....	United States	..	American	2,502 55	
	Bremen	..	Bremen	373 0	
	France	..	Spanish	258 0	
	do.	..	French	2,260 4	
	Martinique	..	American	111 0	
	England	..	Bremen	865 21	
	Venezuela	..	Danish	24 75	
	Guadaloupe	..	French	18 0	30,981 72
Furniture.....	..	..	..	..	28,296 24
Paper of different kinds.....	..	..	..	..	14,406 75
Perfumery.....	..	..	..	..	10,503 60
Stone, for building.....	..	..	..	..	18,207 0
Paint.....	..	..	..	..	6,324 0
Jewellery.....	..	..	..	..	4,833 43
	Spain	..	Spanish	722 12	
	Cuba	..	do.	118 69	
	St. Thomas	..	do.	25,235 18	
	do.	..	American	496 17	
Hardware.....	do.	..	Danish	143 10	
	do.	..	French	569 22	
	United States	..	American	5,019 40	
	do.	..	Danish	20 63	
	France	..	French	4,389 63	
	England	..	English	265 88	36,980 2
Tallow.....	..	..	..	..	2,398 5
Tobacco, in leaf.....lbs.	Cuba	455,367	Spanish	..	91,073 40
— manufactured.....1000	do.	645	..	..	3,870 0
— cigars.....boxes	do.	71,317	..	..	2,852 68
— in leaf.....lbs.	St. Domingo	41,225	..	..	4,122 50
— do.....do.	Virginia	90,096	..	..	7,207 68
— twist.....do.	do.	185,226	..	..	18,522 60
Candles, sperm.....lbs.	St. Thomas	6,582	Spanish	2,106 24	
	do.	9,720	American	3,110 40	
	United States	27,606	do.	8,833 92	14,050 56
		43,908			
— tallow.....lbs.	Spain	59,510	Spanish	74,38 75	
	Cuba	150	do.	18 75	
	St. Thomas	44,925	do.	5,615 62	
	do.	12,270	American	1,523 75	
	do.	125	French	15 63	
	do.	2,500	English	312 50	
	United States	235,940	American	29,492 50	
	Barbadoes	2,530	do.	316 25	
	France	1,500	Spanish	187 50	44,921 25
		359,450			
Sundry other articles.....					3,198,336 13
					224,168 51
					£ 684,500 18 7 equal to..... 3,422,504 64

Imported direct for home consumption.....	dlrs.	cts.		£	s.	d.
„ taken out of bond.....	3,335,568	85	equal to	667,113	15	5
	86 935	79	„	17,387	3	2
	3,422,504	64	„	684,500	18	7
Imported and paid duties.....	3,422,504	64	„	684,500	18	7
„ in bond.....	920,036	03	„	184,007	4	1
Total	4,342,540	67	„	868,508	2	8

VALUE of the different Articles of Importation.

	dlrs.	cts.	dlrs.	cts.
Liquids.....			212,700	17
Salt provisions			68,853	64
Other provisions			106,856	32
Spices			7,989	56
Fruits.....			29,251	44
Grain			614,208	68
Soap, tallow, &c.			121,824	65
Fish.....			301,452	76
Cottons	365,781	34		
Woollens	41,339	90		
Linen.....	296,785	56		
Silks	86,421	05		
Furriery	72,155	42		
			862,483	27
Woods			176,685	24
Gold and silver coin.....			192,957	96
Other articles			727,240	95
			3,422,504	64
Equal to £.....			684,500	18 7

Prices of Export.—The average prices of the principal articles of export in the year 1844 were—

Rum.—22 dollars, equal to about 4*l.* 8*s.* sterling per puncheon, containing 110 gallons.

Cotton.—10 to 12 cents, or about 5*d.* to 6*d.* sterling per pound.

Sugar.—3 dollars, or about 12*s.* sterling per quintal of 100 pounds.

Coffee.—8 cents, or about 4*d.* per pound.

Hides.—9½ cents, or about 4¾*d.* sterling per pound.

Cattle.—Large cattle, weighing 22 to 24 arrobas, or about 550 to 600 pounds each, 35 dollars, or about 7*l.* sterling; small cattle, weighing 18 to 20 arrobas, or about 450 to 500 pounds each, 25 dollars, or about 6*l.* 5*s.* sterling.

Molasses.—11 cents, or about 5½*d.* sterling per gallon.

Tobacco.—6¼ to 6½ cents, or 3¼*d.* to 3½*d.* sterling per pound.

They have not any manufactures on the island except soap.

The average prices of the principal articles of import in 1844 were—

From America.—Wheaten flour, 13 dollars per barrel; maize, ditto, 24 to 26 dollars per cask of 800 pounds; salt mackarel, 8 dollars per barrel; salt herrings, 5 dollars per barrel; smoked herrings, 3 rials per box; mess pork, 15½ dollars per barrel of 200 pounds; salt beef, 8 to 10 dollars per barrel of 200 pounds; lard, 12 dollars per quintal of 100 pounds; butter, 15 dollars per quintal; hams, 15 dollars per quintal; biscuit, 4½ dollars per barrel of 60 pounds; pepper, 12 dollars per quintal; tobacco, 9 to 10 dollars per quintal; tobacco (Manilla), 12 dollars per quintal; soap, 10 dollars per quintal; onions, 2 dollars per quintal; potatoes, 2½ dollars per barrel; cheese, 10 dollars per quintal; tallow candles, 16 dollars per quintal; sperm candles, 36 to 40 dollars per quintal; fish oil, ¾ of a dollar per gallon; linseed oil, 1¼ dollars per jar of 1 gallon; sperm oil, 1½ dollar per jar of 1 gallon; wrapping paper, 4 rials or ½ a dollar per ream; apples, 4 dollars per barrel; kidney beans, 5 dollars per barrel; rice, 3½ to 4 dollars per quintal; deals, 12 to 14 dollars per 1000 feet (1-inch thick); hogshead staves, 28 to 30 dollars per 1000; iron hooks, 6 to 7 dollars per quintal.

From Spain.—Red wine (Catalonian), 28 to 30 dollars per pipe; white wine, 10 to 11 rials per arroba of 18 bottles; garlic, 2 to 2¼ rials per string; wrapping paper, 6 rials per ream; tallow candles, 11 to 12 dollars per quintal (of bad quality); tunny fish, 8 dollars per quintal; earthenware, 6 dollars per dozen; oil, 12 rials, or 1½ dollars

per jar of 8 bottles; soap, 9 dollars per quintal; chick peas, 4 dollars per quintal; pastes (as maccaroni, &c.), $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 dollars per quintal; raisins, 2 dollars per arroba of 25 pounds; paper, 3 to 5 dollars per ream; cigar-paper, $1\frac{3}{4}$ dollars per ream; vinegar, 2 dollars per barrel; figs, 6 dollars per quintal; onions, $1\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per quintal; salt, 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per quintal; flour, 11 dollars per barrel; brandy, 14 rials, or $1\frac{3}{4}$ dollars per demijohn; beer, 2 to $2\frac{1}{4}$ dollars per dozen; gin, $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ dollars per demijohn of $3\frac{1}{2}$ gallons; olives, 8 dollars per quintal.

There is no goods can be imported under any flag* from all countries, without any difference in the duties, independent of those between goods imported in a foreign and Spanish ship; goods of all kinds can also be imported except fire-arms and gun-powder, the importation of which is prohibited except under special licence.

There will not be found to be any great difference in the amount of exports and imports in the years 1843 and 1844, as there is very little difference in the amount of the export and import duties in those years, as—

	dlrs.	cts.	£	s.	d.
In 1843, they amounted to.....	1,082,201	58	216,440	6	4
In 1844 „ „ „	1,070,548	33	214,109	13	4
Difference.....	11,653	25	2,330	13	0

There is not much difference in the exports of the two years from the port of San Juan, of the principal articles of produce, viz.:

A R T I C L E S.	1843	1844	A R T I C L E S.	1843	1844
	quantity.	quantity.		quantity.	quantity.
Rum	340 $\frac{1}{2}$ hhds.	300 $\frac{1}{2}$ hhds.	Molasses	287,325 galls.	351,252 galls.
Cotton.....	63,143 lbs.	131,752 lbs.	Tobacco.....	16,324 lbs.	42,329 lbs.
Sugar.....	13,338,695 do.	13,464,335 do.	Coffee.....	606,483 do.	663,981 do.
Hides.....	273,462 do.	381,502 do.			

Money of the country.—The dollar referred to is the Macaquino, or dollar of the island, which is inferior to the Columbian dollar, varying from 3 to 18 or 20 per cent, at present it is $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent inferior to the Columbian dollar, from 485 to 500 of which, according to the course of exchange, are equal to 100*l.* sterling. The Macaquino dollar is, therefore, not quite worth four shillings sterling, but at that rate it is valued in this statements as the nearest value. The Columbian doubloon of 16 dollars is worth 17 dollars Macaquino money, the Spanish doubloon is worth 18 dollars; but the prices vary according to the demand for either doubloons or Macaquino money.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The whole expenses of the island, including the civil and military establishments, are paid out of its annual revenues arising from the custom-house duties and other levies of different kinds, viz:

	dlrs.	cts.	£	s.	d.
Balance in hand the 1st of January, 1844.....	9,942	15	1,988	8	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Revenue of 1844.....	1,672,521	57	334,501	6	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Total.....	1,632,463	72	336,492	14	11
Expenses	1,642,397	22	328,479	8	11
Balance in hand the 1st of January, 1845	40,066	50	8,013	6	0

In the expenses, however, are included bills drawn by the Spanish government, paid in 1844, 79,999 dollars 37 cents, and other charges for account of Spain, making altogether 187,930 dollars, 96 cents, or 37,586*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* sterling, and in 1843 bills from Spain were paid for 83,778 dollars 62 cents, and other charges; making altogether 167,818 dollars 34 cents, or 33,563*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling, besides which, on the 1st of January, 1845, bills drawn upon the government of Porto Rico by the Spanish government to the amount of 778,839 dollars 73 cents, or 155,767*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.* sterling remained unpaid, which will be paid off according to priority, as they may be able to spare the funds for discharging them, but several years must elapse before they can be all paid off, and

* Except Venezuela, Colombia, and St. Domingo, whose ships are not allowed to enter the ports of Porto Rico.

whilst the government at home draws so heavily upon the colony, it is imposible that they can appropriate money to any extent for improvements in roads or any thing else unless some internal tax be laid upon the inhabitants for the purpose, for what they now pay is very trifling.—*Official Returns, Porto Rico, 14th of January, 1845.*

REGULATIONS RELATING TO THE PAYMENT OF DUTIES IN PORTO RICO.

The productions of the island which have been shipped to foreign ports and are returned to be imported here, whatever may be the cause, must pay the same duties as are paid upon the productions of the country from whence they were last imported.

All articles entered for home consumption at Porto Rico, if exported to any other foreign port, shall be free of all duty on their exportation; but the import duties will not be returned.

If any vessel lands goods in small or large quantities in the roads, creeks, or bays in the island not allowed for that purpose, they with the vessel and all that belongs to her will incur the penalty of confiscation.

Sixty days are allowed by the customs for the landing and payment of the duties on goods from the date of delivery of the captain's manifest, the consignee being obliged to pay them at the expiration of that time, but if no consignee be found, the captain must pay them before he departs.

The duties on goods imported must be paid as soon as the return is made by those not entitled to a delay in the payment. One-fourth part of the duties required by the customs must be paid in gold or Spanish dollars, and the other three quarters in the Macaquino money or currency of the island.

The person answerable for the duties to whom an extension of time is granted for the payment, must give a note of hand payable at a fixed period for the sum of money to which they amount, and this note of hand must be endorsed by another person making himself liable for the payment in case the importer should not pay it. This permission extending the period for the payment of the duties is not, however, granted indiscriminately to every one, but the party claiming the credit must be a merchant and acknowledged as such by the Chamber of Commerce, to which he must in the first instance apply to be enrolled as a merchant, stating that he is in a situation to comply with their regulations, and upon their being satisfied of it his name is placed upon the list of merchants, and all others not coming under this description must pay the duties upon the goods they import directly.

The following are the regulations established relative to the payment of duties by such importers as are settled at Porto Rico as merchants, and subject to the Chamber of Commerce.

When the manifest value of the goods (supposing them to be foreign) does not exceed 200 dollars, the duty must be paid as soon as the return is delivered in by the landing officers. From 200 to 2000 dollars in value two months are allowed for the payment; from 2000 to 4000 dollars, three months; from 4000 to 6000 dollars, four months; from 6000 to 8000 dollars, five months, and on amounts exceeding that sum, six months, the Intendencia or Board of Revenue reserving to themselves the right of enlarging the last-named period for payment when the value of the cargo is considerable.

Spanish goods imported in a Spanish ship have an advantage over other goods in the fixing for the value, by which the period for the payment of the duties is regulated as they are taken 75 per cent lower than other goods. For instance, in the first class Spanish goods to the value of 50 dollars only, are required to pay the duty at once, whereas other goods to the value of 200 dollars must pay the duty directly; in the second class, Spanish goods to the value of 500 dollars only, have two months' credit, whilst other goods to the amount of 2000 dollars must pay their duties in two months; in the next class, Spanish goods to the amount of 1000 dollars have three months' credit, but other goods to the amount of 4000 dollars must pay their duties at the same period, and so on with the other classes.

The same credit is not allowed in the payment of the duties upon the exportation of the productions of the country as upon articles for importation, but they must be paid directly.

Spanish and foreign ships coming from abroad which may proceed from one approved port in the island to another, with the whole or part of their cargoes, shall be despatched with certificates referring to their manifests, and having on them the proper annotations of the goods landed at the first port (if any were landed), which must be produced at the port where they wish to discharge, going through the same formalities if they proceed to others as at the first port of entry, and paying at each the duties on that part of the cargo which may be landed there.

Foreign goods, which have paid the import duties, can be taken free by land or by water to all parts of the island with proper permits, without any necessity for the return of the permits.

The productions of the island can also be removed free from one port to another, but those who take them are obliged to deliver in returns of the permits.

Vessels coming from foreign ports to the island of Porto Rico ought to be careful in bringing a manifest with a clear specification of the contents of the cargo, with certificates of the shipment of the goods on board, signed by the Spanish consul at the port of shipment, if there should be one there, as they are very particular in requiring these documents in importing a cargo.

Tonnage Dues.—Spanish ships coming from the neighbouring islands pay five and a-half rials, or about two shillings and ninepence English, per ton; two rials, or about one shilling English, if from other foreign ports; and one rial, or about sixpence per ton if from a Spanish port.

Every ship under the American flag pays eight rials, or about four shillings English, per ton, and all other nations pay five and a-half rials, or about two shillings and ninepence English, per ton.

Every Spanish or foreign ship, although she may enter in ballast of the export a cargo, much or little, is subject to the whole duty of tonnage.

There is an addition also of one per cent upon all tonnage dues.

If Spanish or foreign ships proceed on their voyage from one port of the island to another, they pay the tonnage duty only at the first port.

Spanish or foreign ships which arrive in want of water or provisions, or to inquire the prices of goods, repair damages, or for other motives, shall not be charged any tonnage duty, but they must supply their wants as quickly as they can, and sail again from the port as soon as they are ready, taking care not to import any article, for if they do they become subject to the whole of the tonnage duty.

Anchorage and Harbour Dues.—Every ship coming to an anchor in the port is subject to a duty of two dollars for anchorage. The pilotage into San Juan is eighteen dollars, and there are besides the captains of the ports and interpreters' fees, the whole of the different charges amounting together to thirty-two dollars.

If a ship from abroad proceeds from one to other ports in the island, she must pay the anchorage and harbour dues at every port she enters.

Warehouseing.—The port of San Juan is the only one in the island at present where foreign goods can be warehoused without payment of duty.

The goods are allowed to remain in bond twelve months, and when taken out two months more are allowed the merchants for the payment of the duties, provided, if Spanish goods, they are of the value of fifty dollars, or other goods of the value of 200 dollars, the duties must otherwise be paid when taken out of bond.

Goods warehoused without payment of duty, pay half per cent on the value on landing, which is paid by the importer, and half per cent on clearing, which is paid by the person who takes them out of bond, making together one per cent, which is the only charge, besides the expense of labour, landing, and shipping, and the goods are deposited in the government storehouses, which are fire-proof, and no charge is made for storehouse rent.

Regulations respecting the Coasting Trade of Porto Rico.—The coasting trade, which was confined to particular ports, can now be carried on between all the ports in

the island. No coasting vessel, despatched from one port of the island to another, is allowed on her passage to touch at any foreign port unless driven there by bad weather, and then it must be carefully ascertained that the cargo she has on board is the same as that which she shipped, and in the event of its being different it shall be confiscated, together with the vessel.

The coasting trade can be carried on in Spanish vessels only.

If a coasting vessel happens to touch at another point distinct from that for which she was despatched, and wishes to discharge the whole or part of her cargo there, it may be allowed upon the captain exhibiting the permits or documents with which he may have been furnished at his shipping port, and after the goods are landed receiving through his agent the corresponding return of permits, and having the requisite annotations made on his despatch.

Trade between Porto Rico and the Island of St. Thomas.—The importation into the Island of Porto Rico of goods coming from the Danish Island of St. Thomas, and those near it, can only take place at San Juan, Mayaguas, Ponce, Guayama, Areibo, Fajardo, Naquabo, Aquadilla, Humacao, and Guayanilla, and in vessels which measure twenty tons.

Captains, when they leave St. Thomas, ought, before they take their departure, to have a manifest prepared giving the full contents of the cargo, with a full specification of the packages, boxes, &c., on board, and it should give the tonnage also of the vessel, and the person interested in the cargo should give the captain a sealed note for the head of the customs at the port to which she may be bound, expressing from whence the different articles, came and what each package contains, and certificates from the Spanish consul are required for the shipment of all the packages or there may be a difficulty in landing the goods, and at any rate no credit will be allowed upon the payment of the duties.

Particulars of the different Rates of Duties on Goods imported into Porto Rico.

A fixed duty of fifty-seven reals (Spanish money) on every quintal of *foreign* cordage imported in a foreign ship, thirty-four reals from foreign port in Spanish ship, twenty reals from Spanish port in Spanish ship.

In a Foreign Ship.

100	per cent	ad valorem	on foreign salt.
40	"	"	foreign flour.
36	"	"	refined sugar from foreign ports.
26	"	"	oil, liquors, woollen goods, hams, lard, butter, furniture, paper, pastes, as maccaroni, &c., furriery, salt fish, cheese, anchovies (foreign).
20	"	"	cod fish, meats, and salt provisions, ironmongery, fruits, grain, cotton, thread, and silk goods (foreign).
4	"	"	jewellery of gold and silver from foreign ports.
2	"	"	ditto, ditto from Spanish ports.

In a Spanish Ship.

32	per cent	ad valorem	on foreign flour.
18	"	"	refined sugar from foreign ports.
24	"	"	oil, liquors, woollen goods, hams, lard, butter furniture, paper, pastes, as maccaroni, &c., furriery, salt fish, cheese, anchovies (foreign).
14	"	"	cod fish, meats, and salt provisions, ironmongery, fruits grain, cotton, thread, and silk goods (foreign).
11	"	"	leeches from a Spanish port.
6	"	"	fruits, and goods, and merchandise from a Spanish port.
3	"	"	jewellery from foreign ports in Spanish ships.

Free.—Gold and silver in bullion and coined, steam-engines, and other machinery, for the use of sugar-mills.

There is a duty of *one* per cent upon the *value* of the goods, also for making roads, and there is a duty called the balance of one per cent on the *amount of the duties*, and *one-quarter* per cent consulage upon the *value of the goods*, in addition to the above duties.

The war duty, a temporary tax, was taken off 1st of October last. It was a tax amounting to 500,000 dollars, imposed upon the island by the government of Spain, the 30th of January, 1838, to pay the expenses of the war.

The articles prohibited from importation are gunpowder and fire-arms, which can be only admitted under special permission.

Three-fourths of the duties to be paid in the Macaquino money of the country, and one-fourth in gold or Spanish dollars, both on exports and imports.

*Particulars of the Duties on Exportation of Produce, &c., from Porto Rico.
In Foreign Ships.*

20	per cent	ad valorem	on valuable woods and building timber to foreign ports.
5	"	"	spirits, cotton, hides, molasses, tobacco, and the other productions of the island, except cattle and wood.
2	"	"	silver in bullion and coined, for foreign ports.

In Spanish Ships.

12	per cent	ad valorem	on valuable woods and building timber to foreign ports.
4	"	"	ditto, ditto to Spanish ports.
3	"	"	spirits, cotton, sugar, coffee, hides, molasses, tobacco, and the other productions of the island, except cattle and wood to foreign ports.
1	"	"	spirits, cotton, hides, molasses, tobacco, and the other productions of the island, except cattle and wood to Spanish ports.
1	"	"	gold in bullion and money to foreign ports.

The Duties on the Exportation of Sugar and Coffee from this Island.

Those duties will henceforth be as follows, viz. :—

Three rials (round money) upon every case of sugar of four hundred pounds weight, in a foreign ship.

Two rials (round money) on the same quantity exported in a Spanish ship.

Four per cent on the value of coffee exported in a foreign ship.

Two ditto, ditto, ditto Spanish ship.

Free.—Gold and silver in bullion and money to Spanish ports.

The duty on cattle was taken off by the government of Porto Rico on the 19th of November last.

TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

THE exports of British manufactures to Cuba was carried on to a very great extent before 1809, when they were absolutely prohibited by law. Since that period the trade had increased in proportion.

DECLARED Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, Exported from the United Kingdom to Cuba and Porto Rico, in each Year from 1827 to 1846. A small part of these Goods were Exported to some of the other Foreign West Indies, Hayti excepted.

Y E A R S.	Value.	Y E A R S.	Value.
	£		£
1827.....	649,378	1834.....	913,005
1828.....	569,728	1835.....	787,043
1829.....	672,176	1836.....	987,122
1830.....	618,029	1837.....	891,713
1831.....	663,531	1838.....	1,025,392
1832.....	633,700	1839.....	891,826
1833.....	577,228	1840.....	863,520

VALUE of British Manufactures, Exported to Cuba and Porto Rico, through the British West Indies.

Y E A R S.	Cotton. Manufactures.	Linens.	Woollens.	Hardwares.	Miscellaneous	TOTAL VALUE.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1832.....	65,265	38,612	2849	6,984	6,555	120,265
1833.....	64,213	28,944	3849	7,965	11,320	118,271
1834.....	76,594	34,637	2885	9,210	12,801	156,127
1835.....	85,247	25,840	4632	8,250	23,009	146,978
1836.....	49,833	24,061	4425	7,246	18,106	103,671
1837.....	70,139	33,886	4303	10,100	14,700	133,128
1838.....	52,714	33,897	2097	8,064	11,428	108,200
1839.....	68,689	29,775	919	6,698	18,850	124,931
1840.....	46,969	32,869	506	487	14,705	95,536

See detailed tables of exports from United Kingdom to Cuba, &c., hereafter, in Miscellaneous Statements.

CHAPTER XVIII.

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

FRANCE possesses in the West Indies exclusive of Cayenne, or French Guayana, the Islands of Guadaloupe and Martinique.

These possessions have for some time engaged most laudable attention, especially with reference to the slave population, on which subject great merit is due to the Duke of Broglie.

Guadaloupe consists of two islands, divided by Salt River, about five miles long, and twenty to forty fathoms wide, with sufficient depth for vessels of from forty to sixty tons. The eastern is called Grande-terre, western Basse-terre, or Guadaloupe; both about 534 square miles, or 341,760 statute acres; length of Grande-terre thirty-six miles, breadth of ditto twelve miles; length of Basse-terre thirty-five miles, breadth of ditto eighteen miles. Basse-terre is covered with mountains and hills of volcanic origin; the highest part, near the southern extremity, has a volcano, La Souffrière, rises to the elevation of about 5108 feet. It has no regular crater, but smoke issues out of three or four places. Not far from the

sea, south-west of the volcano, a spring rises out of the sea of boiling hot water. It is well watered by springs and rivers. Grande-terre is generally low, in few places above 1000 or 1500 feet high. It is not of volcanic formation, the elevated hills consist chiefly of coral rocks; it has neither streams nor springs of fresh water and the soil is sandy, and much less fertile than Basse-terre. Point à Pitre is built near the southern entrance of the Salt River, on low ground; the harbour of Le Petit Cul de Sac is sheltered, and the anchorage is good. Population about 16,000. Basse-terre, Guadeloupe, is built within an unsheltered roadstead, with indifferent anchorage. It is unsafe during the hurricane season. The town extends along the shore, but not far inland, owing to a mountain rising almost abruptly from the shore. It is well built, and is situated in the more productive part of the island. Population about 7500.

MARIE GALANTE is about twelve miles long, and five to nine miles wide; area sixty British square miles, 38,400 acres. The hills towards the southern extremity are of no great elevation, and are covered with trees; on their summits there is generally a verdant plateau. In the northern districts, the hills rise higher; and towards the eastern coast, they terminate near the sea in high and precipitous rocky cliffs. Parallel to the low northern shores there extends a narrow lagoon about eight miles long, separated from the sea by a narrow bank of sand, The capital is GRANDBOURG, a small, but neat place.

Within these mountainous rocks, nine miles south-east of Basse-terre, called *Saintes*, there is a safe harbour. The *Saintes* consist of lofty and steep peaks, some of which are united by flat ground, and ridges of inferior elevation; others are entirely separated by the sea. The products are coffee and cotton.

DESEADA, or DESIRADA, a small island two leagues east of Guadeloupe rises with a steep ascent, and then spreads into a tableland of limestone rocks, in which caverns occur. It is without water.

The population of these islands on the 21st of December, 1836, consisted of males, 60,794; females, 66,780, total, 127,574.

Of the above there were—

PROVINCES.	Free.	Slaves.	TOTAL.
	number.	number.	number.
In Guadeloupe.....	26,168	81,642	107,810
Marie Galante.....	3,072	10,116	13,188
Saintes.....	570	569	1,139
Desirada.....	498	1,070	1,568
St. Martin (French part).....	944	2,925	3,869
Total.....	31,252	96,322	127,574

Average proportion of births and deaths to the population—one birth for every fifty slaves, twenty-eight free; one death for every forty-four slaves, thirty-four free.

The average quantity of rain that falls in the year is calculated at about eighty-six inches. The difference in the quantity, between a dry and wet season, is about thirteen inches. In the course of the year, the greatest number of days

on which rain falls, during five years was, 223, and the smallest number 179. The greatest quantity of rain falls from the middle of July to the middle of October; the remaining nine months are comparatively dry.

The area of Guadaloupe and its dependencies is constituted as follows in English acres: Guadaloupe, 339,160 acres; Marie Galante, 37,900 acres; Saintes, 3102 acres; Desirada, 10,695 acres; St. Martin (French part), 13,266 acres; total, 401,123, or 631 square miles.

GUADALOUPE and its dependencies are divided into three arrondissements, six cantons, and twenty-four communes (part of the island of St. Martin which lies to the *northward* of St. Christopher, forming one of the latter).

AREA in hectares.

PROVINCES.	Total surface.	Cultivated.	Pasturage.	Woods.	Uncultivated.
	hectares.	hectares.	hectares.	hectares.	hectares.
Guadaloupe.....	138,212	38,004	19,801	20,528	59,879
Marie Galante.....	15,344	4,109	3,201	1,626	6,408
Deseada.....	4,330	629	457	121	3,123
The Saintes.....	1,256	162	89	192	813
Port of St. Martin.....	5,371	1,841	241	674	2,615
Total.....	164,513	44,745	23,789	23,141	72,838

The two small rivers, the Goyave and the Lezarde, are navigable for boats, and facilitate the shipment of produce.

The productions of these islands are, sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, cotton, cocoa, and small quantities of cloves and tobacco. The quantities of these articles produced in 1835 were:—Sugar 79,937,530 lbs.; molasses, 1,431,384 gallons; rum, 474,763 gallons; coffee, 2,209,618 lbs.; cotton, 177,020 lbs.; cocoa, 61,649 lbs.; cloves, 759 lbs.; tobacco, 8310 lbs.

The government of Guadaloupe and its dependencies is vested in a governor, a privy council composed of six members, three of whom are appointed *ex-officio*, and a colonial council of thirty members, elected by the owners of landed property in the island. The metropolitan interests of the colony are intrusted to two delegates in Paris, who are elected by the colonial council, and form part of the colonial committee of seven members, who advise with the central governments. The internal affairs are managed by municipal councils.—(*See Martinique.*)

MARTINIQUE.—The French geologists class Martinique with those islands which are entirely of volcanic formation. Masses of volcanic rocks rise in the interior to a great elevation. Mount Pelée is nearly 4450 feet high, and the summits of Les Pitons-de-Carbet, are said to be higher. Six extinct volcanoes occur, the craters of one of which is of vast breadth and depth. The volcanic rocks extend in most parts from the mountain to the sea; which latter form numerous and deep indentations along the coast. Between the volcanic rocks irregular broad fertile valleys occur. About two-fifths of the surface of the island is under cultivation, and the remainder is covered with trees, or occupied by naked rock or disintegrated pumice-stone. When the latter is mixed with mould, both constitute a most fertile soil. The mountain slopes are in

most parts covered with primeval forest. In other parts the slopes are cultivated to the height of about 1400 feet perpendicular. Numerous streams flow down from the mountains. Near the southern end there is a small salt lake. This island produces sugar, coffee, cocoa, and cotton. The valleys on the west side, or Basse-terre, are more extensive, fertile, and level than those in the eastern called Cabes-terre. Of the numerous harbours, Cul de Sac Royal is an admirable port, on the shores of which stands Fort Royal, the residence of the French governor. Population about 10,000. The CAPITAL is ST. PIERRE, the largest and best built town in the Lesser Antilles. The houses are four to five stories high, built in the style of European architecture. The streets are regular, and the shops are numerous and well supplied. Population about 20,000. Small streams run down the centre of the paved streets, which are lighted at night by lamps. It has some churches, a botanic garden, and is strongly fortified. Fort Trinité, on the eastern coast, stands in the bay of the same name. It has a considerable trade. Population about 6000. There are many other harbours, but they have, on the east side especially, intricate entrances.

The number of the population of Martinique in 1836 was as follows :—

Free males, 17,419 ; females, 20,536 ; total, 37,955. Slaves, males, 37,584 ; females, 40,492 ; total, 78,076. Total, free and slaves, males, 55,003 ; females, 61,028 ; total, 116,031.

The whites are not distinguished from the free black and coloured persons, but it is estimated that they amounted to about 9000, and that of the other 29,000 free persons, 17,579 had been manumitted in the five preceding years, and from 1836 to 1842, there were manumitted 3534 slaves.

The proportions of births, deaths, and marriages, among the different classes of the population are :—

Births, whites and free black and coloured, 1 in 29 ; deaths, 1 in 37 ; marriages, 1 in 137. Slaves, births, 1 in 32 ; deaths, 1 in 35 ; marriages, 221 in 5577.

The climate is humid. From observations during six years, the greatest number of rainy days in the year was 238, and the least number 223. The quantity of rain which falls during the year averages eighty-four inches ; the difference between a dry and a wet year does not exceed thirteen inches. The greatest rains fall between the middle of July and the middle of October ; during the other months showers are frequent. The heat is tempered by the sea breezes.

The area of Martinique is estimated at 98,782 hectares, or about 244,348 English acres ; one-third computed as level, and two-thirds as mountainous. Some of the rivers or streams are navigated by boats for a short distance.

Great improvement in the culture of the sugar-cane has taken place in this island of late years, and in 1835 it was estimated that 38,320 hectares were under

culture, that savannah and pasture lands occupied 21,772 hectares, woods and forests 23,387 hectares, and unproductive lands 15,303 hectares.

In 1836 there were three earthenware and tile factories, and ten lime-kilns, employing 352 slaves; and a number of hands, both free and bond, are employed in fishing; and between 400 and 500 in navigation and the coasting trade.

OFFICIAL Account given of the Distribution of the Cultivated Lands, their Produce, &c., in 1836 :—

ARTICLES.	Hectares cultivated.	Produce.	Quantity.
	hectares.		
Sugar Cane.....	23,777	{ Raw Sugar.....	33,960,800 kil.
		Do.	198,780 do.
		Syrup and Molasses.....	6,259,139 litres.
		Rum.....	1,869,920 do.
Coffee.....	2,917	..	692,807 kil.
Cotton.....	249	..	18,705 do.
Cocoa.....	464	..	125,610 do.
Corn, &c.....	12,706	..	Value 2,886,831 francs.
Mulberry.....	4		
Total.....	40,117		

On which 55,421 slaves were employed whose value is estimated at 1500, and 1000 francs each.

On the 1st of January, 1836, the number of beasts of burden and other stock upon the island was 38,034, valued at 12,324,230 francs, or 513,509*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* sterling.

The number of mills employed in the manufacture of sugar was, in 1826, water-mills, 183; wind, 27; cattle, 211; total 421: in 1834, steam, additional 13; total, 434.

Martinique is divided into the arrondissements of Fort Royal and St. Pierre, fourteen cantons and twenty-six communes. It has a military force of about 2000 men, besides a militia of about 4000. There are three schools of mutual instruction, two in the capital, and one at St. Pierre, and there are primary schools in every commune, orphan asylums, and other charitable institutions.

The public expenditure of the island, in 1837, was estimated at 4,387,866 francs, the receipts to meet which amounted to only 2,260,711 francs. The difference falls on the French treasury.

Justice is administered by a court royal, two assize courts, and two inferior tribunals. Besides the towns already named there are Marin, with 3000 inhabitants; Lamentin, with 8900 inhabitants; and Rivière Salée, 2300 inhabitants. There are also about twenty villages in the island.

Fort Royal is the seat of government, and St. Pierre the maritime capital.

Government.—The administration is under a governor and a privy council of seven members. A colonial council of thirty members is elected for five years, by whites paying 300 francs, or 12*l.* per annum direct taxes, or possessing property in the colony worth 1200*l.*; it authorises the levying of taxes for internal purposes; advises the governor and privy council in all matters which it considers useful to the colony. The colonial council elects two agents to represent the colony in Paris, and to form part of a committee of agents for all the French colonies.

STATISTICS OF THE FRENCH WEST INDIES.

French Guyana, population, Canton of Cayenne, 3854 free; 14,941 slaves; total, 18,795 inhabitants. Canton of Senamary, 1202 free; 1651 slaves; total, 2853 inhabitants. Total population, 5506 free; 16,592 slaves; total, 22,098

AGRICULTURE and Produce of French Guayana in 1840.

PRODUCTS.	Hectares.	Rural Habitations.	Slaves Employed in Agriculture.	PRODUCTS.	Quantity.	Gross Value.	Estimated Exportation of Agriculture.
	number.	number.	number.			fr.	fr.
Sugar canes	1,363	28	3,489	Sugar.....	2,383,100 kil.	1,309,385	463,528
Coffee.....	209	14	217	Syrup of molasses..	750,707 lit.		
Cotton	2,303	71	2,691	Tafia	205,850		
Cacao	192	11	259	Coffee.....	52,920 kil.	104,137	26,033
Pimento.....	1,000	39	1,477	Cotton	174,780 "	303,254	75,817
Rocou.....	2,490	131	3,732	Cacao.....	45,125 "	31,589	7,894
Pepper.....	32	3	92	Pimento.....	176,060 "	349,977	87,494
Cinnamon.....	10	..	..	Rocou	576,285 "	546,514	136,628
Nutmegs.....	2	..	..	Pepper.....	2,060 "	2,539	634
Food.....	3,846	93	294	Cinnamon.....	520 "	820	205
				Nutmegs.....	92 "	493	123
				Food	.. "	3,508,415	877,103
Total....	11,447	390	12,251	Total....	..	6,157,323	1,675,459

Besides the agricultural habitations, there were 72 hattes, 7 wood or building-yards, and 5 brick-kilns, which employed 724 slaves, making a total of 12,975 slaves attached to agriculture, &c.

	francs.
Value of lands under cultivation.....	5,564,400
Value of buildings and machinery.....	7,086,500
Value of slaves	19,462,500
Value of live stock	1,073,440

Total value..... 33,186,840 or,

Sterling £ 1,327,454

LIVE Stock in 1838.

DESCRIPTION.	Head.	Approximate Value.	
		Per Head.	TOTAL VALUE.
	number.	fr.	fr.
Horses.....	126	500	63,000
Asses	26	100	2,600
Mules.....	80	500	40,000
Stallions	78	500	39,000
Cows.....	6,073	120	728,760
Bulls and oxen	1,734	150	260,100
Calves	656	50	32,800
Heifers	762	50	38,100
Pigs.....	1,798	20	35,960
Rams and sheep.....	823	30	24,690
Total.....	12,156	..	1,265,010

SUGARS Imported into France from Guadaloupe, Martinique, Bourbon, and Cayenne.

YEARS.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Duties Levied.
	kilog.	kilog.	fr.
1831.....	87,872,000	81,280,000	38,807,000
1832.....	77,308,000	82,248,000	39,258,000
1833.....	75,597,000	69,919,000	33,058,000
1834.....	83,049,000	66,475,000	31,533,000
1835.....	84,250,000	69,340,000	32,932,000
1836.....	79,326,000	66,189,000	31,494,000
1837.....	66,536,000	66,490,000	31,534,000
1838.....	86,993,000	68,147,000	31,798,000
1839.....	87,665,000	71,613,000	29,090,000
1840.....	75,544,000	78,445,000	28,863,000
Decennial average	80,414,000	72,015,000	32,837,000
1841.....	85,819,000	74,515,000	34,720,000

NAVIGATION between France and Guadeloupe.

Y E A R S.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.		ENTERED AND CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
1831.....	194	47,772	195	47,623	389	95,395
1832.....	184	45,178	170	42,098	354	87,276
1833.....	159	39,165	121	31,656	280	70,821
1834.....	167	44,343	168	44,025	335	88,368
1835.....	163	41,576	174	44,615	337	86,191
1836.....	163	42,575	156	43,297	319	85,872
1837.....	115	29,629	130	33,950	245	63,579
1838.....	142	33,672	149	36,751	291	70,423
1839.....	175	38,814	141	33,319	316	72,133
1840.....	131	29,420	148	34,944	279	64,364
Decennial average.....	159	39,214	155	39,228	314	78,442
1841.....	140	31,107	179	43,235	319	74,342

OFFICIAL Value of the Trade of France with Guadeloupe.

Y E A R S.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.		IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.	
	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
1831.....	26,184,000	23,910,000	12,143,000	12,817,000	38,327,000	36,727,000
1832.....	23,367,000	24,328,000	22,908,000	22,491,000	46,275,000	46,819,000
1833.....	21,161,000	19,371,000	12,296,000	12,236,000	33,457,000	31,607,000
1834.....	24,556,000	18,390,000	14,385,000	14,386,000	38,941,000	32,776,000
1835.....	23,738,000	18,806,000	16,508,000	16,362,000	40,246,000	35,168,000
1836.....	23,641,000	18,687,000	20,204,000	19,945,000	43,845,000	38,632,000
1837.....	17,236,000	18,251,000	17,615,000	17,578,000	34,851,000	35,829,000
1838.....	21,512,000	17,046,000	15,193,000	15,018,000	36,705,000	32,064,000
1839.....	25,276,000	18,707,000	14,726,000	14,560,000	40,002,000	33,267,000
1840.....	20,333,000	20,769,000	16,807,000	16,431,000	37,140,000	37,200,000
Decennial average.....	22,700,000	19,827,000	16,279,000	16,182,000	38,979,000	36,009,000
1841.....	20,445,000	15,792,000	17,377,000	17,357,000	37,822,000	33,149,000

PRINCIPAL Articles composing the Trade between France and Guadeloupe, in the Years 1839, 1840, 1841.

IMPORTS.

ARTICLES IMPORTED.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
Sugar.....	23,165,000	18,746,000	18,866,000	17,104,000	19,466,000	14,292,000
Coffee.....	793,000	958,000	780,000	798,000	720,000	687,000
Dye and cabinet woods.....	203,000	172,000	295,000	164,000	144,000	274,000
Rum and taffia.....	366,000	120,000	182,000	247,000	136,000	177,000
Cotton wool.....	310,000	96,000	145,000	195,000	145,000	156,000
Hides, untanned.....	45,000	46,000	54,000	53,000	46,000	84,000
Copper, pure, of first fusion.....	30,000	39,000	37,000	30,000	30,000	37,000
Cocoa.....	21,000	15,000	15,000	18,000	15,000	14,000
Sweetmeats and preserves, &c....	36,000	53,000	9,000	7,000	7,000	7,000
Cassia, unprepared.....	2,000	13,000		1,000	2,000	
Annatto.....	217,000			49,000		
Tobacco, leaf.....	23,000					
Iron cables.....	12,000		4,000	9,000		2,000
Tortoiseshell.....	8,000	15,000	2,000	8,000	12,000	2,000
Other articles.....	45,000	60,000	56,000	24,000	46,000	50,000
Total value of imports.....	25,276,000	20,333,000	20,445,000	18,707,000	20,769,000	15,792,000

EXPORTS.

ARTICLES EXPORTED.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
Tissues of cotton.....	3,706,000	4,871,000	4,637,000	3,704,000	4,868,000	4,637,000
„ of flax or hemp.....	1,563,000	2,123,000	2,204,000	1,553,000	2,123,000	2,204,000
„ of silk.....	215,000	307,000	335,000	193,000	307,000	335,000
„ of wool.....	225,000	389,000	424,000	225,000	389,000	424,000
Hides, tanned.....	1,391,000	991,000	950,000	1,391,000	670,000	950,000
Wines.....	492,000	819,000	859,000	492,000	819,000	859,000
Brandy and liqueurs.....	59,000	101,000	153,000	59,000	101,000	153,000
Wheatmeal.....	620,000	685,000	811,000	620,000	685,000	811,000
Instruments and manufactures of metal.....	228,000	616,000	630,000	228,000	605,000	630,000
Butter, salt.....	435,000	388,000	495,000	435,000	388,000	495,000
Cod-fish.....	578,000	419,000	454,000	561,000	419,000	454,000
Mules.....	257,000	185,000	424,000	257,000	185,000	424,000
Olive oil.....	677,000	589,000	370,000	607,000	589,000	370,000
Wax, prepared, and candles.....	289,000	293,000	261,000	289,000	293,000	261,000
Pottery, glasswares, &c.....	152,000	234,000	261,000	152,000	234,000	261,000
Salt meat.....	385,000	477,000	247,000	384,000	477,000	247,000
Goods for use.....	276,000	300,000	230,000	276,000	300,000	230,000
Medicines.....	145,000	193,000	202,000	145,000	193,000	202,000
Haberdashery.....	42,000	166,000	180,000	42,000	164,000	180,000
Paper, and paper manufactures..	90,000	123,000	164,000	90,000	123,000	164,000
Perfumery.....	83,000	214,000	161,000	83,000	214,000	161,000
Wood.....	180,000	121,000	144,000	180,000	121,000	144,000
Blood of animals.....	57,000	104,000	30,000	57,000	104,000	30,000
Casks, empty.....	558,000	16,000	14,000	558,000	16,000	14,000
Jewellery.....	168,000	98,000	480,000	160,000	98,000	480,000
Colours.....	153,000	97,000	123,000	153,000	97,000	123,000
Materials.....	117,000	89,000	152,000	117,000	89,000	152,000
Other articles.....	1,585,000	1,799,000	1,982,000	1,549,000	1,760,000	1,962,000
Total value of exports.....	14,726,000	16,807,000	17,377,000	14,560,000	16,431,000	17,357,000

COMMERCE OF MARTINIQUE.

Staple Products.—Sugar, rum, coffee, and cotton.

AVERAGE of Four Years' Produce of Sugar, Molasses, and Rum, between 1832 and 1835 inclusive.

SUGAR.		Molasses and Syrup.	Rum.
Raw.	Refined.		
kilogrammes.	kilogrammes.	litres.	litres.
29,258,716	121,190	8,851,873	1,950 204

QUANTITIES and Value of the Principal Articles Exported in 1836.

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.
	number.	francs.
Raw sugar.....kil.	22,994,754	13,796,852
Molasses.....litres	2,483,593	506,962
Raw cocoa.....kil.	133,727	120,354
Coffee.....do.	519,507	831,238
Dyewoods.....do.	1,289,018	253,679
Rum.....litres	144,957	86,266
Cassia.....kil.	53,006	79,524
Copper.....do.	40,547	81,094
Coin, gold and silver.....		415,180
Other articles.....		252,289
Total.....		16,423,438 or, £684,309 10s.

Value of imports in the same year 19,480,398 francs.

In that year 358 French Vessels, of the aggregate burden of 48,861 tons entered, and 353 left the ports of the island, in addition to 495 foreign vessels entered, and 487 cleared out.

NAVIGATION between France and Martinique.

YEARS.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.		ENTERED AND CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
1831.....	136	35,037	154	40,966	290	76,003
1832.....	137	35,200	147	38,249	284	73,449
1833.....	114	28,523	98	25,734	212	54,257
1834.....	127	32,504	152	38,931	279	71,435
1835.....	133	33,164	150	37,715	283	70,879
1836.....	125	31,928	115	31,214	240	63,142
1837.....	106	27,575	130	33,128	236	60,703
1838.....	114	27,030	144	33,972	258	61,002
1839.....	124	27,556	136	31,487	260	59,043
1840.....	108	24,584	128	27,495	236	52,079
Decennial } average }	122	30,310	136	33,889	258	64,199
1841.....	122	28,521	139	33,554	261	62,075

OFFICIAL Value of the Trade of France with Martinique.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.		IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.	
	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
1831.....	18,992,000	17,454,000	12,638,000	13,649,000	31,630,000	31,103,000
1832.....	16,403,000	16,956,000	21,259,000	19,261,000	37,662,000	36,217,000
1833.....	14,762,000	13,270,000	12,438,000	12,399,000	27,200,000	25,669,000
1834.....	17,230,000	13,001,000	14,465,000	14,480,000	31,695,000	27,481,000
1835.....	16,244,000	14,181,000	16,710,000	16,639,000	32,954,000	30,840,000
1836.....	15,429,000	13,175,000	15,656,000	15,068,000	31,085,000	28,243,000
1837.....	13,428,000	12,513,000	17,308,000	17,283,000	30,736,000	29,796,000
1838.....	17,112,000	12,020,000	15,594,000	15,496,000	32,706,000	27,516,000
1839.....	17,277,000	14,104,000	16,507,000	16,366,000	33,784,000	30,470,000
1840.....	15,390,000	14,901,000	20,955,000	20,869,000	36,345,000	35,770,000
Decennial } average }	16,227,000	14,158,000	16,353,006	16,153,000	32,580,000	30,311,000
1841.....	16,664,000	14,545,000	18,330,000	18,315,000	34,994,000	32,860,000

PRINCIPAL Articles composing the Trade between France and Martinique, in the Years 1839, 1840, and 1841.

IMPORTS.

ARTICLES.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
Sugar.....	15,484,000	13,445,000	14,670,000	12,840,000	13,416,000	13,000,000
Coffee.....	351,000	676,000	430,000	348,000	465,000	414,000
Dyewoods.....	360,000	316,000	339,000	330,000	303,000	365,000
Rum and Taffia.....	271,000	116,000	284,000	190,000	151,000	214,000
Cassia, unprepared.....	254,000	162,000	221,000	5,000	13,000	4,000
Vanilla.....	1,000	76,000	194,000	1,000		25,000
Hides untanned.....	54,000	124,000	156,000	56,000	99,000	147,000
Cocoa.....	134,000	135,000	128,000	121,000	124,000	93,000
Copper of first fusion.....	105,000	92,000	72,000	105,000	107,000	72,000
Old iron, &c.....	5,000	34,000	43,000		34,000	43,000
Tortoiseshell.....	11,000	12,000	15,000	7,000	12,000	12,000
Sweetmeats, preserves, &c.....	12,000	12,000	13,000	12,000	11,000	12,000
Goldsmiths' sweepings.....	29,000	9,000	9,000	29,000	9,000	19,000
Cotton-wool, &c.....	107,000	105,000		17,000	115,000	
Brass, raw.....		8,000			1,000	
Tin.....	6,000	2,000	1,000	6,000	2,000	1,000
Lead.....	4,000	2,000	1,000	4,000	2,000	1,000
Other articles.....	89,000	60,000	88,000	33,000	37,000	123,000
Total value of imports..	17,277,000	15,386,000	16,664,000	14,104,000	14,901,000	14,545,000

EXPORTS.

ARTICLES.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
Tissues of cotton.....	4,164,000	6,139,000	4,302,000	4,162,000	6,132,000	4,302,000
— of flax or hemp.....	2,180,000	3,097,000	2,502,000	2,180,000	3,097,000	2,502,000
— of wool.....	162,000	383,000	418,000	162,000	383,000	448,000
— of silk.....	390,000	427,000	425,000	387,000	427,000	425,000
Wines.....	722,000	1,063,000	1,139,000	722,000	1,063,000	1,139,000
Hides, tanned.....	1,000,000	1,134,000	1,004,000	1,000,000	1,134,000	1,004,000
Olive oil.....	907,000	1,220,000	680,000	907,000	1,220,000	680,000
Salt meat.....	627,000	391,000	545,000	627,000	391,000	540,000
Pottery, glasswares, &c....	223,000	317,000	495,000	223,000	317,000	495,000
Jewellery, &c.....	154,000	191,000	455,000	154,000	191,000	455,000
Works in metal.....	284,000	424,000	451,000	280,000	417,000	451,000
Wheat-meal.....	730,000	806,000	500,000	730,000	806,000	500,000
Candles.....	586,000	720,000	417,000	426,000	720,000	417,000
Butter, salt.....	316,000	377,000	387,000	646,000	377,000	387,000
Perfumery.....	244,000	316,000	326,000	244,000	316,000	326,000
Cod-fish.....	248,000	208,000	281,000	245,000	208,000	281,000
Haberdashery.....	204,000	193,000	268,000	204,000	193,000	268,000
Mules.....	375,000	218,000	229,000	375,000	218,000	229,000
Medicines.....	136,000	207,000	185,000	136,000	207,000	185,000
Goods for use.....	168,000	283,000	179,000	168,000	283,000	179,000
Paper and paper manufac- tures.....	158,000	181,000	152,000	158,000	181,000	152,000
Wood.....	101,000	98,000	79,000	101,000	98,000	79,000
Soap.....	173,000	284,000	63,000	173,000	281,000	63,000
Thread of hemp and flax...	36,000	107,000	54,000	35,000	107,000	54,000
Materials.....	112,000	67,000	116,000	107,000	67,000	116,000
Other articles.....	1,937,000	2,104,000	2,648,000	1,814,000	2,032,000	2,638,000
Total Value of exports...	16,507,000	20,955,000	18,330,000	16,366,000	20,869,000	18,315,000

NAVIGATION between France and Cayenne.

YEARS.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.		ENTERED AND CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.
1831.....	23	4056	27	4458	50	8,514
1832.....	24	4304	21	3904	45	8,208
1833.....	23	4485	17	3251	40	7,736
1834.....	17	3325	16	3269	33	6,594
1835.....	22	4336	23	4767	45	9,103
1836.....	28	6121	29	6404	57	12,525
1837.....	24	5168	26	5917	50	11,085
1838.....	24	5099	27	5239	51	10,338
1839.....	20	3786	24	4366	44	8,152
1840.....	26	4148	27	4430	53	8,578
Decennial average....	23	4483	24	4600	47	9,083
1841.....	26	4345	27	4409	53	8,754

OFFICIAL Value of the Trade of France with Cayenne.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.		IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.	
	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
1831.....	2,427,000	1,579,000	1,737,000	1,753,000	4,164,000	3,332,000
1832.....	2,001,000	1,672,000	2,027,000	1,945,000	4,028,000	3,617,000
1833.....	2,158,000	1,785,000	2,273,000	2,197,000	4,431,000	3,982,000
1834.....	2,250,000	1,635,000	2,157,000	2,075,000	4,407,000	3,710,000
1835.....	2,679,000	1,871,000	2,027,000	2,001,000	4,706,000	3,872,000
1836.....	3,051,000	1,988,000	2,759,000	2,675,000	5,810,000	4,663,000
1837.....	2,762,000	1,678,000	3,999,000	3,089,000	5,861,000	4,767,000
1838.....	2,735,000	1,531,000	3,417,000	3,391,000	6,152,000	4,922,000
1839.....	2,824,000	1,262,000	2,816,000	2,682,000	5,640,000	3,944,000
1840.....	3,645,000	2,146,000	2,643,000	2,637,000	6,288,000	4,783,000
Decennial average.....	2,653,000	1,715,000	2,496,000	2,444,000	5,149,000	4,159,000
1841.....	3,438,000	1,927,000	2,508,000	2,437,000	5,946,000	4,364,000

PRINCIPAL Articles composing the Trade between France and Cayenne, in the Years 1839, 1840, and 1841.

IMPORTS.

ARTICLES.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
Cloves.....	539,000	335,000	1,060,000	84,000	53,000	117,000
Annatto	961,000	1,220,000	944,000	218,000	334,000	429,000
Sugar	736,000	1,287,000	878,000	475,000	1,289,000	728,000
Cotton wool.....	317,000	339,000	305,000	249,000	53,000	393,000
Wood, exotic.....	195,000	64,000	152,000	151,000	55,000	144,000
Coffee	18,000	258,000	18,000	18,000	33,000	20,000
Curiosities.....	19,000	27,000	15,000	19,000	27,000	15,000
Hides, untanned.....	6,000	76,000	13,000	6,000	7,000	28,000
Copper, pure, of first fusion	5,000	,000	11,000	5,000	49,000	11,000
Rum and taffia.....	10,000	4,000	10,000	9,000	4,000	10,000
Pepper.....	4,000	5,000	1,000	3,000	2,000	3,000
Cocoa.....	5,000	3,000	1,000	7,000	3,000	1,000
Caoutchouc.....	2,000			11,000		
Other articles	8,000	20,000	30,000	7,000	237,000	26,000
Total value of imports	2,825,000	3,645,000	3,438,000	1,262,000	2,146,000	1,927,000

EXPORTS.

ARTICLES.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.	francs.
Tissues of cotton.....	778,000	596,000	515,000	779,000	596,000	515,000
„ flax and hemp...	405,000	258,000	234,000	405,000	258,000	234,000
Hides, tanned.....	93 000	141,000	187,000	93,000	141,000	187,000
Wines.....	163,000	289,000	168,000	159,000	289,000	168,000
Tissues of wool	165,000	140,000	153,000	163,000	140,000	153,000
Goods for use.....	171,000	111,000	142,000	171,000	111,000	142,000
Salt meat.....	60,000	99,000	75,000	58,000	99,000	75,000
Wheatmeal.....	42,000	60,000	74,000	35,000	60,000	69,000
Pottery, glasswares, &c....	39,000	49,000	58,000	39,000	49,000	58,000
Olive oil.....	100,000	51 000	51,000	19,000	51,000	10,000
Brandy and liqueurs.....	28,000	33,000	46,000	24,000	33,000	46,000
Tissues of silk.....	60,000	24,000	42,000	60,000	24,000	42,000
Butter, salt.....	29,000	26,000	34,000	29,000	26,000	34,000
Mats	7,000	151,000	32,000	7,000	151,000	32,000
Wax, manufactured, and candles.....	26,000	24,000	31,000	26,000	24,000	31,000
Medicines.....	31,000	25,000	28,000	31,000	25,000	27,000
Lime.....	9,000	22,000	27 000	9,000	22,000	27,000
Essence of meat, &c.....	26,000	21,000	18,000	26,000	21,000	18,000
Paper and paper manufac- tures.....		49,000	17,000		49,000	17,000
Fish	21,000	14,000	17,000	19,000	14,000	17,000
Jewellery, &c.....	15,000	45,000	15,000	10,000	45,000	15,000
Perfumery	14,000	21,000	10,000	14,000	21,000	10,000
Wood	1,000	18,000	6,000	1,000	18,000	6,000
Oil, seed.....	3,000	5,000	11,000	3,000	5,000	11,000
Casks, empty.....	56,000	1,000	1,000	56,000	1,000	1,000
Arms.....	37,000	20,000	17,000	33,000	20,000	8,000
Materials.....	34,000	32,000	4 090	34,000	32,000	4,000
Soap	28,000	10,000	11,000	28,000	10,000	11,000
Salt.....	10,000	2,000	2,000	10,000	2,000	2,000
Other articles.....	367,000	306,000	482,000	341,000	300,000	467,000
Total value of exports.....	2,816,000	2,643,000	2,508,000	2,682,000	2,637,000	2,437,000

NAVIGATION between France and the French Establishments of Saint-Pierre and Miquelon.

YEARS.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.		ENTERED AND CLEARED.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
1831	318	39,715	328	42,489	646	82,204
1832	365	49,472	371	49,884	734	99,356
1833	371	48,695	473	67,194	844	115,889
1834	425	57,325	440	53,613	865	110,938
1835	519	68,596	508	65,310	1,027	133,906
1836	481	65,135	491	58,957	972	124,092
1837	503	70,573	573	86,398	1,076	156,971
1838	533	69,483	604	80,314	1,137	149,797
1839	489	64,542	574	75,152	1,063	139,694
1840	487	66,486	509	62,881	996	129,367
Decennial average..	449	60,002	487	64,219	936	124,221
1841	476	64,613	472	59,169	948	123,782

OFFICIAL Value of the Trade of France with Saint-Pierre and Miquelon and the Fisheries.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.		IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.	
	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.	General Trade.	Special Trade.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
1831	6,701,000	6,608,000	479,000	394,000	7,180,000	7,002,000
1832	7,298,000	7,296,000	3,428,000	2,718,000	10,726,000	10,014,000
1833	7,697,000	7,604,000	4,804,000	4,800,000	12,501,000	12,404,000
1834	7,650,000	7,636,000	4,957,000	4,814,000	12,607,000	12,450,000
1835	7,146,000	7,116,000	4,953,000	4,595,000	12,099,000	11,711,000
1836	7,520,000	7,665,000	5,423,000	3,618,000	12,943,000	11,283,000
1837	11,613,000	11,457,000	4,797,000	4,103,000	16,410,000	15,560,000
1838	12,224,000	12,175,000	5,679,000	5,601,000	17,903,000	17,776,000
1839	13,646,000	13,675,000	5,776,000	5,678,000	19,422,000	19,353,000
1840	13,444,000	13,447,000	5,457,000	5,022,000	18,901,000	18,469,000
Decennial average.	9,494,000	9,468,000	4,575,000	4,134,000	14,069,000	13,602,000
1841	13,923,000	13,584,000	4,986,000	4,403,000	18,909,000	17,987,000

PRINCIPAL Articles composing the Trade between Saint-Pierre, &c., in the Years 1839, 1840, and 1841.

IMPORTS.

ARTICLES.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
Cod-fish.....	7,143,000	6,734,000	6,929,000	7,143,000	6,733,000	6,654,000
Oil, whale.....	4,136,000	4,433,000	4,677,000	4,130,000	4,271,000	4,677,000
— cod.....	1,343,000	1,078,000	998,000	1,383,000	1,076,000	992,000
Whalebone.....	683,000	757,000	804,000	683,000	774,000	804,000
Fish, other than cod.....	207,000	205,000	195,000	207,000	200,000	195,000
Blubber.....	..	55,000	126,000	..	217,000	126,000
Roe of cod and mackarel...	60,000	33,000	58,000	60,000	33,000	58,000
Other articles.....	72,000	149,000	136,000	67,000	141,000	78,000
Total value of Imports..	13,646,000	13,444,000	13,923,000	13,675,000	13,447,000	13,584,000

EXPORTS.

ARTICLES.	GENERAL TRADE.			SPECIAL TRADE.		
	1839	1840	1841	1839	1840	1841
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
Salt.....	1,468,000	1,542,000	1,371,000	1,468,000	1,428,000	1,259,000
Tissues of flax or hemp....	535,000	553,000	566,000	535,000	553,000	566,000
— wool.....	101,000	118,000	65,000	98,000	118,000	65,000
Cordage.....	234,000	489,000	488,000	234,000	248,000	208,000
Bread and biscuit.....	314,000	267,000	304,000	314,000	267,000	304,000
Butter, salt.....	325,000	266,000	240,000	319,000	266,000	240,000
Salt meat.....	503,000	223,000	231,000	500,000	223,000	225,000
Haberdashery.....	304,000	546,000	203,000	304,000	534,000	135,000
Brandy.....	234,000	156,000	177,000	234,000	156,000	177,000
Wines.....	230,000	207,000	148,000	230,000	207,000	146,000
Cider and perry.....	186,000	150,000	12,000	186,000	150,000	12,000
Wood.....	92,000	132,000	145,000	92,000	132,000	125,000
Wheat meal.....	129,000	97,000	105,000	129,000	97,000	105,000
Hides, tanned.....	103,000	100,000	88,000	97,000	100,000	88,000
Instruments and manufac- tures of metal.....	33,000	145,000	72,000	33,000	96,000	15,000
Casks, empty....	394,000	32,000	61,000	394,000	32,000	54,000
Potatoes and vegetables....	47,000	41,000	46,000	47,000	41,000	46,000
Candles.....	27,000	20,000	19,000	26,000	20,000	19,000
Goods for use.....	70,000	37,000	17,000	70,000	37,000	17,000
Parisian articles.....	..	21,000	12,000	..	21,000	12,000
Other articles.....	449,000	321,000	616,000	368,000	296,000	585,000
Total value of exports..	5,778,000	5,457,000	4,986,000	5,678,000	5,022,000	4,403,000

CHAPTER XIX.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.

SAINT EUSTATIA.—This small island was first settled by the Dutch in 1635. It is nearly thirty miles in circumference, and its area is said to be nearly 190 square miles. It appears, at some distance from the sea, like a conical mountain; but it changes its appearance on approaching its shores, with a level surface for several miles, covered with some cane fields and provision grounds. Its town, during the war, carried on a contraband traffic to an extent which perhaps has never been surpassed; the plunder which fell into the hands of the English, when taken by Admiral Rodney in 1781, amounted to about 4,000,000*l.* sterling. The prosperity of this island has rapidly declined; little commerce is now carried on. The expenditure of the local government exceeds the revenue. The island has no water except that supplied by rain. It is reputed healthy.

There are very few sugar plantations, producing about 1000 barrels; yams, and a few other articles of food are raised.

The population, at one period, amounted to about 5000 whites, and about 15,000 slaves; the present number does not exceed 300 or 400 whites, and about 2000 slaves.

SABA lies about ten miles to the north-west of St. Eustatia. It is inaccessible excepting on the south side, where an artificial path admits the ascent of one person at a time. In a secluded valley, in the middle of the island, there are a few in-

habitants, who grow some cotton and vegetables. It is a dependency of St. Eustatia.

ST. MARTIN.—The French and Dutch made a settlement on this island in 1638, from which they were expelled by the Spaniards: the latter abandoned it in 1650. The French and Dutch divided it between them. It is about fifteen miles in length, breadth, nine miles; area, thirty square miles.

This island is hilly, but has no mountains; it is watered by several rivulets; in the southern part are salt water lagoons, from which great quantities of salt are obtained by the Dutch. The coast affords several good roadsteads, of which Philipsburg and Marigôt are the chief. The soil is light, stony, but fertile, especially in the northern district: excellent tobacco is grown. The climate is considered healthy.

The northern and largest portion of the island, belonging to the French, forms a *commune* of the colony of Guadaloupe. The population of this division is estimated at about 600 free, 3000 slaves.

The southern division, though less fertile, is more valuable for the salt it produces. It also yields annually about 25,000 cwt. of sugar, and 130,000 gallons of rum. Its expenditure, in common with all the Dutch colonies, exceeds its income.

The population of the Dutch has been estimated as equal to that of the French part.

CURAÇOA.—This island was settled by the Dutch in 1632. Its length is about forty-two miles, and about fourteen miles in breadth, with an area of nearly 800 square miles.

It is generally low, with several hills rather than mountains. It has in most parts a bold sea-coast, with some good harbours, the first of which is Santa Anna. The soil is sterile and rocky: the industry of the inhabitants have brought a considerable quantity of land under culture. Sugar is the chief staple, and salt is also made. From its vicinity to the South American coast, it was formerly a place of great contraband trade. Williamstadt, the capital and seat of government, is one of the cleanest and best built towns in the West Indies. The government is vested in a stadtholder and a civil and military council. According to official statements, the expenditure exceeds the revenue of the colony, the former amounting to 408,903 francs, and the latter only to 57,847 francs, 53 cents.

Population, about 3000 whites; 5500 free coloured; 5000 slaves.

CHAPTER XX.

DANISH WEST INDIES.

ST. THOMAS.—This island, which was settled by the Danes in 1672, is in length about ten miles; in breadth, five miles; area, about thirty-seven square miles. A chain of hills traverses the island from east to west. The soil is generally poor; water is scarce, and the island is subject to severe droughts. Sugar and cotton are grown in moderate quantities. The town is well built, situated on the acclivities of three conical hills; near these it is defended by strong fortresses, commanding the harbour and shipping. The general aspect of the place is said to present a superiority over many of the towns in the lesser Antilles, and as resembling a populous commercial town in Europe. The houses are principally built of stone and brick, and tiled. St. Thomas has long been, and is now, a principal emporium in the West Indie. Its convenient situation, its spacious and safe harbour, and the moderation of the import duties, which vary from 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, *ad valorem*, have, in consequence, rendered it a depôt for the supply of the neighbouring islands; goods being sent to it as an entrepôt, until sold to other markets. Commerce and activity pervade its streets, and shipping of many nations are always in its harbour. The articles of importation are manufactured goods: principally from England, and partly from other countries of Europe; and provisions, lumber, &c., from the United States.

The import trade of this island in 1840 from Europe and North America was as follows:—

P L A C E S.	Vessels entered.	Tonnage.	First Cost Value of Importation.
	number.	tons.	dollars.
From Great Britain.....	42	9,208	2,100,000
France.....	38	6,944	640,000
Spain.....	7	520	23,000
Italy.....	9	1,288	53,000
Hamburg and Altona.....	32	5,890	960,000
Flensburg.....	12	2,265	41,000
Bremen.....	9	1,432	199,000
Holland.....	2	306	13,000
United States & Brit. America	217	30,279	968,000
Total.....	368	58,132	4,997,000

In the same year the Spanish American and West Indian Islands' arrivals were as follow:—

P L A C E S.	Vessels.	Weight.	P L A C E S	Vessels.	Weight.
	number.	tons.		number.	tons.
Venezuela and New Grenada...	55	4,642	Brought forward.....	1186	32,005
British Islands.....	690	9,923	Danish Islands.....	321	13,637
French ".....	55	2,311	Swedish ".....	18	569
Spanish ".....	377	11,981	Hayti ".....	43	1,813
Dutch ".....	99	3,148	Total.....	1568	48,024
Carried forward.....	1186	32,005			

Besides a great number of vessels which call, neither load nor unload goods, and, in that case, free from port charges.

Population about 7000; of whom there are about 500 whites; 1500 free coloured and negroes; and the remainder slaves.

SANTA CRUZ, OR ST. CROIX.—This island was first settled by the Dutch in 1643, who were expelled by the English in 1646. In 1650, the English were routed by the Spaniards, who laid the island waste. In 1733, the French crown sold its claim to the Danes for 75,000*l*. In 1801 it was taken by the English; restored in the following year; captured in 1807, and remained under the dominion of Britain till 1815, when it was again ceded to the Danes.

Its length is about twenty miles; breadth, about nine miles; area, about eighty-one square miles.

Santa Cruz is of an oval form; inferior to St. Thomas in its maritime commerce, it is of far greater importance in area, fertility, products, and internal resources. With the exception of a few hills in the neighbourhood of the capital, the whole island is nearly a level. Its surface was originally divided into equal portions of 150 acres each, which, with different shades of culture, gives a varied aspect to its area: the roads are good, and average from twenty-four to thirty feet wide; they run in straight lines through the island at right angles.

The soil is not very rich, but tolerably fertile, yet owing to droughts the crops are uncertain. Christianstadt, the capital, is extremely well built; the houses are of stone, and commodious.

The government of the island is under a governor-general, whose jurisdiction extends to the other Danish colonies in these seas, and two councillors:—there is also the “Burgher Council,” consisting of seven members. The code of Christian V., together with the rescripts of the crown, constitute the law. A number of the largest estates in the island are the property of British subjects; about one-third of the slaves belong to the King of Denmark, as owner or mortgagee of estates; but the slaves are in the course of annual and gradual emancipation, as is the case in the other Danish islands.

Population in 1841—3200 whites; 20,000 slaves.

In 1816, the island produced upwards of 40,000 hogsheads of sugar, but in seasons less favourable, not more than 10,000 or 12,000. The cultivation of coffee, indigo, and cotton, has been generally abandoned for many years.

Average value of Sugar, about	.	.	.	1,200,000	rix dollars.
„ Rum „	.	.	.	500,000	„

ST. JOHN.—This island was settled by the Danes in 1721. Its length is about thirteen miles; its breadth, six miles. Sugar and cotton are produced in small quantities, and live stock is also reared. On the south-east side, a pro-

montory forms two coves, which are defended by a fort on the north point of the entrance, and another on Duck Island, close to the south point. This promontory has the town called "the Castle."

ST. BARTHOLOMEW.—This island belongs to Sweden. It was settled by the French in 1648 ; ceded by them to Sweden in 1784. Its length is about fifteen miles ; its breadth, about five miles ; area, only twenty-five square miles. St. Bartholomew is of slight elevation, with irregular round hills. It is well wooded, but indifferently supplied with water. The inhabitants depend chiefly on rain-water. The soil is fertile, producing sugar, cotton, and some tobacco ; the woods yield *lignum-vitæ*, iron-wood, and other trees. Reefs surround the coast, but there is a good harbour on the west side called the *Carenage*, near which the town of Gustavia is situated.

The population of the whole island is estimated at between 6000 and 7000 ; many are descendants of Irish Roman Catholics.

BOOK IX.

EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

CHAPTER I.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES AND STATISTICS OF BRAZIL.

WE have in the first and third books of this work introduced a sketch of the discovery and history of Brazil.

This empire comprehends the great eastern section of South America ; from the sources of the Rio Branco, in about 4 deg. north latitude, or rather from the boundary of French Guyana, to the boundary line of Uruguay in about 30 deg. south latitude.* The length of the empire of Brazil is computed, from north to south, at about 2600 miles. The greatest breadth, from between 6 deg. and 8 deg. south latitude, on the Atlantic Ocean about 35 deg. west longitude, to the Rio Yavari (70 deg. west longitude) is estimated at near 2540 miles. The area is estimated at about 2,750,000 square miles, or nearly twenty-three times the area of the United Kingdom, and about seventy times as large as Portugal.

The boundaries will be best seen by reference to the last modern maps than by description ; further than that its boundaries, which are not, except on the Atlantic, well defined, are, French Guayana on the north, the Atlantic on the east and north-east, Uruguay on the south, and the Spanish Republics along its great western frontiers.

The northern and western provinces of Brazil consist of vast alluvial plains of great fertility, with, in many parts, an unhealthy climate, arising from the rich vegetation of low, alluvial lands. The central, eastern, and southern provinces vary greatly, both in climate and in products ; some regions are not inferior in fertility to the most favoured parts of the earth, others are either completely arid or nearly unproductive. The whole of the southern and eastern provinces may be considered as one great plateau, which rises somewhat abruptly from the Atlantic, and extends westward with undulations, and hills, and rivers, and streams, several hundred miles, with gradual declivities towards the north and south. The highest part of this great plateau rises into a chain of mountains, which run parallel to the coast and east of the River San Francisco. This region

* A strip of the country east of Monte Video, along the Atlantic, is with its islands and lagoons claimed as far as 35 deg. south, by Rio Grande do Sul.

is called the Serra do Espinhaço, or the Backbone Chain. There is, however, very generally a belt of low land between the sierra and the ocean.

Sea Coast.—Approaching the coast from the Atlantic, the outline appears mountainous, but on nearing the shores it generally presents a picturesque character, varied by mountains, forests, and verdant valleys. The lands rise, however, rather abruptly (some few miles) from the coasts, and afterwards to the high ranges, from 5000 to 6000 feet high, called the Brazilian Andes. The approach to Rio Janeiro, with the Organ mountains in the distance, the coast of Brazil north of Rio Janeiro, or rather north of Cape Frio, which stretches out into the Atlantic, east from the Bay of Rio Janeiro, is remarkably picturesque but not remarkable for projecting headlands.

Cape Frio is the great landmark for ships arriving from the Atlantic for Rio Janeiro. This promontory is one of the termini of the long ridge of mountains, which follows the coast to the south and west. Mr. Kidder observes, that “a huge oval mass of granite here marks the spot where the line of coast turning to the north, forms nearly a right angle.”

Some years ago the English frigate *Thetis*, bound homeward at the expiration of a cruise in the Pacific, was wrecked upon Cape Frio. This vessel, on leaving the harbour of Rio where she had touched, had encountered foul weather. After struggling against it till it was presumed she had cleared the coast, she bore away, steering the proper course, if sufficiently east. In the darkness of the night, with the wind fair and strong, the ship was running eight or ten knots an hour, when, without the slightest apprehension of danger, she dashed upon this rocky headland. The officers and crew had barely time to clamber on to, or drag themselves up, the promontory, before the frigate sunk. The crew managed to hold on the rocky shelves of the cape, above the reach of the waves, throughout a most dismal night.

A good lighthouse has since been constructed upon Cape Frio, which at the present time renders the approach of the navigator nearly as safe by night as it is by day.

From Cape Frio the coast to the north is low and sandy. About ten miles from it is a village which, in 1615, received the name of the city of Cape Frio. It does not thrive nor increase, though it has a safe harbour and fertile land, with sea-marshes yielding salt.

The next place to the north is Macahé, at the mouth of a small river. The steamers which ply between Rio de Janeiro and Campos, touch at the village of Cape Frio and at Macahé. The fertile district surrounding Campos is called the Campos dos Goyatakazas, or plains of the Goyatakaz Indians. It has been compared to the Elysian fields. Campos, situated on the western bank of the river, has regular and well-paved streets, with some good houses. Its commerce employs a vast number of coasting smacks, which export its sugar, rum, coffee, and rice to Rio Janeiro. The sugars of Campos are deemed the best in Brazil.

The coast of Espirito Santo, which embraces the old captaincy of the same name, and part of that of Porto Seguro, extending from the province of Rio de Janeiro on the south, to that of Bahia on the north, was discovered by Cabral, and settled by the first *Donataries*. It is but thinly inhabited and worse cultivated. Its soil is fertile, and well adapted to the growth of sugar-cane and other tropical productions. Precious woods and drugs abound in its forests, and the shores abound in excellent fish. A company has surveyed the Rio Doce, with the view to open a transport between the coast and the province of Minas Geraes.

The Abrolhos (in Portuguese, *open your eyes*) are four small, rocky, low, and dangerous islands, about ninety miles from the shore, in the eighteenth degree of south latitude. They are a projection from a bank of rocks, which exhibits itself, occasionally, between the seventeenth and twenty-fifth degrees of south latitude, at a distance of from two to ten leagues from the main land. Besides these shoals, there is a regular reef of rocks running near and generally parallel with the shore from Cape Frio to Maranham. Espirito Santo, Porto Seguro, Ilheos, and nearly all the ports along the coast are entered by openings through this reef. This long reef protects vessels sailing within it so effectually that it has been compared to one continued harbour. The sandhills along the shores of Brazil often rise in high white hummocks.

The distance from Rio de Janeiro to Bahia is about 800 miles. There is no large city or flourishing port on the coast, nor is there a single direct or beaten road through the interior. The only author who has ever travelled over this portion of Brazil, by land, is Prince Maximilian, of Neuwied. It is difficult to form an idea of the impediments, annoyances, and dangers which he had to surmount:—such as dense and thorny vegetation, insect plagues, among which were the most formidable wasps' and hornets' nests, wild beasts, venomous reptiles, and rivers without bridges. Yet he tells us that "although scratched and maimed by thorns, soaked by the rains, exhausted by incessant perspiration caused by the heat, yet nevertheless the traveller is transported in view of the magnificent vegetation." His travels in Brazil were accomplished between the years 1815 and 1818, and his interesting work furnishes up to the present day the best account we have of the scenery and of the people of this part of the empire. The character and condition of the inhabitants have not since then been susceptible of much either of progress or change. Under the present administration, there has been a gradual improvement; yet, up to 1839, the whole province of Espirito Santo contained not a single printing-press. Many of its churches, built with great expense by the settlers, were going to decay. Nothing was doing towards civilising or instructing the Indians; and, amidst a population of more than 40,000, there were only six or seven primary schools with any pupils.

On approaching Bahia and the Island of Itaparica, the coast is low, and

little can be seen, save here and there a line of branching coqueiros (cocoa-nut trees). The latter are often seen along the coast as far south as Santa Catherina.

From Bahia to each of the provinces of Sergipe and Alagos, the coast is generally low, but in parts undulated, with a thick jungle covering the country to the serra of Itaparica, about twenty miles inland. The serra divides the low country from the open plains of the interior. Brazil-wood abounds in the serra. Porto dos Pedros, Barra Grande, and Porto Calvo, occur on the coast of Alagos. The shore continues low, with white sandhills to and at Pernambuco and Itamarca, and often covered with cocoa-nut trees. The coast of Rio Grande do Norte is also generally low, with a sandy beach, and the soil sandy, and only in parts fertile. The coast, after rounding Cape St. Roque, trends westward, with shores generally low, and with some peaks inland in the province of Ceara. The coast of Maranham is more irregular but not mountainous. From Maranham to the mouth of the Amazon, the shores, including the Delta, are, with little exception, flat and uninteresting. The whole coast of Brazil north of Rio Janeiro, may be considered generally as low, and faced at some distance in the sea with reefs or banks, yet from a distance of some leagues at sea, its appearance, for a very great extent is mountainous. From Cape Frio to Rio Janeiro, the shores form an exception to this rule. South of Rio Janeiro, rivers, bays, and the large lagoons of Patos and Merim occur; and, with a high mountainous background, the coast, generally, with a few bluffs, is also low.

CHAPTER II.

LAKES AND RIVERS OF BRAZIL.

LAKES are numerous in the great basins, or plains, of the Amazon, and some are of considerable extent during the rainy season. The Lake of Xarayes exists only during the wet season, when it covers many thousands of square miles; in the dry season its waters entirely disappear. There are numerous lakes in the southern provinces of the empire in the low country bordering Uruguay; the largest is the Laguna dos Patos and Lake Mirim. The greatest part of Lake Mirim is included within Uruguay. No lake of any extent occurs on the great table-land, small lakes are not uncommon. But no deep or extensive lakes like the great inland seas of North America occur in Brazil.*

* While we are too well aware that the most careful writers do not escape making erroneous statements, and one writer after another has related some general errors respecting Brazil, the recent work of Mr. Kidder, being from the evidence of his personal knowledge down to 1844, has appended the following remarks:—

“It was not until the present work was in press, that the attention of the author was directed to the article on Brazil, in M'Culloch's Universal Gazetteer in that work.

“1. Three Provinces are enumerated which have no existence in the empire, to wit, Rio Negro, Minas Novas, and Fernando.

“2. Two of the actual provinces, Santa Catharina and Rio Grande do Sul, are not in the list at all.

“3. ‘All its principal cities are on the coast. Its HARBOURS are among the finest in the world,

All the tributaries of the Amazon, which flow into it, east of the Rio Madera, from the south, run their whole course within the territories of this empire. Of the tributaries which fall into the Amazon from the north, between the mouths of the Madera and Guyana and that of the Yavari, the lower part of their courses only flows through Brazil. The rivers which drain the southern portion of the table-land carry their waters down to the Parana and Paraguay. Most of the larger rivers which fall into the Amazon from the south-east, and those which flow into the Parana, have their course interrupted by rapids, and cataracts. These rivers are generally, however, navigated, *portages* occur where the impediments are too great to be overcome. Those rivers which do not join either the Amazon or the Parana, and navigated to some extent, are chiefly the Itapicurú, the Parahyba, and the Iguaribe, west of Cape San Roque; and south of it the Rio San Francisco, the Rio Grande do Belmonte, the Rio Doce, the Parahyba, and the Rio Grande do Sul with its branch, the Jacuhy. But with the exception of the Amazon, the rivers of Brazil flowing to the coast are interrupted in their navigation.

The great range of mountains near the coast prevents any rivers from attaining the ocean immediately, except such as spring from the eastern side of serras; but several rivers of the interior fall circuitously into the Atlantic.

and are connected with the interior by numerous large RIVERS, most of which are *navigable for a considerable way inland.*

"The harbours of Rio de Janeiro and Bahia deserve the above compliment. But what great navigable rivers connect either of them with the interior, remain to be discovered. It is matter of notoriety, and of universal regret, that, notwithstanding the number and the vastness of the rivers flowing through the northern and western portions of the empire, and finally mingling their waters with the Amazon and the La Plata, there is not one, besides the Amazon, emptying into the Atlantic along the whole Brazilian coast, which is 'navigable' any 'considerable way' from its mouth inland. Hopes are entertained that the River Doce may be rendered navigable to steam-boats, but great expense must first be incurred. *No city or harbour of note exists at its mouth.*

"4. 'The soil near the coast displays evidences of the *richest cultivation.*' 'In the neighbourhood of Rio Janeiro, it consists in a *great measure of plains.*'

"No part of Brazil has been, as yet, subjected to 'the richest cultivation,' and probably three-fifths of the whole sea-coast are, as yet, in a state of nature. If it is meant that the coast generally has been more cultivated than the great interior, it is in the main true, although it may be questioned, whether any part of the coast has been better cultivated than some portions of Minas Geraes. To speak of the soil in the neighbourhood of Rio, consisting 'in a *great measure of plains,*' is still more obviously incorrect, as will appear from any authentic description or view of the place.

"5. Under the head of RELIGION, it is stated that one of the *chief* sects at Rio is that of the Sebastianists. It is but just to say that this was never true. Individuals there are in that city, as well as in other parts of the empire, belonging to that sect, but they are nowhere numerous, and have not been during the present century.

"6. Respecting POPULATION, it is stated on the authority of Balbi, that there are 300,000 converted Indians. Probably no intelligent Brazilian would estimate the number higher than 10,000, making the most charitable allowances. Again, on the same authority, it is stated that the 'independent Indians, European settlers,' &c. (singular conjunction), amount to 150,000; whereas, there is reason to believe that the province of Pará alone contains that full number of savage Indians.

"Mr. M'Culloch's view of literature, education, &c., would have been tolerably correct twelve or fifteen years ago, if we except the absurd and malicious statement, that 'the book called 'the art of stealing' is found in-nearly every house in Brazil!'

"The radical defect of the whole article under observation consists in its having been compiled from books that are either obsolete, or else that were never entitled to credit."—*Kidder's Sketches of Brazil.* New York, 1845.

The Paraiba discharges itself in latitude 6 deg. 57 min. south; longitude 42 deg. west.

There are three Rio Grandes: one rises in the province of Minas Geraes, and, after a long course to the north-east, falls into the Atlantic a few miles north of Porto Seguro, in latitude 15 deg. 26 min. south; another waters the province of Bahia, and falls into the Rio Francisco; a third gives a name to the province of Rio Grande do Sul, and flows in the Atlantic about the 32nd parallel of south latitude.

The immense estuary of La Plata is the great drain for all the central waters south of the tributary streams of the Amazon. The land which divides the waters of the Amazon from those of the Plata, rises to its greatest height between the 13th and 14th parallels of latitude. The Paraguay, Parana, and other tributaries of the Plata, we have described in Book III.

THE RIVER AMAZON.

THE AMAZON, which, with its tributaries, is considered the largest river in the world, assumes its name at the junction of the Tunguragua, or Marañon, which issues from the Lake Lauricocha, in Peru, in latitude 10 deg. 29 min. south; and the Ucayali, formed by streams which have been traced to the 16th and 18th degrees of south latitude. These two great and navigable rivers unite on the confines of Peru, and form the main and uninterrupted stream of the Amazon, which, running eastward more than 1000 miles, then takes a more northerly direction, and having received the waters of hitherto countless and navigable tributary streams, falls into the Atlantic by many channels. Following all its windings, it is computed to be between 4000 and 5000 miles in length. At its mouth, it is about 180 miles broad, and its depth is in most parts unknown. It has been navigated to its confluence with the Pachitea, between the 8th and 9th degrees of south latitude, where its current is gentle; and, by the Rio Negro, one of its branches, it communicates with the Cassiquiare, which falls into the Orinoco. Its shores are covered with dense woods, inhabited by tigers, leopards, boars, and an innumerable variety of apes or monkeys, while an immense variety of birds of the most beautiful plumage enliven these vast solitudes. The manati and tortoise abound along the banks of this river and its tributaries, which also swarm with alligators. That huge herb feeding animal, the manati, ascends or is found, as well as the turtle, high up the Ucayali.

The principal stream of the numerous magnificent rivers which fall into the Amazon, is the Rio Madera, or forest-river, formed by the union of several streams issuing from the eastern slope of the Andes on the borders of Peru, which flowing towards the east and north-east, unite before they reach the 10th degree of south latitude. Their confluent waters, after several magnificent falls, reach the level country; whence the Madera rolls along, its vast waters, forming, for a great

part of the distance, the north-western boundary of the Brazilian dominions, and joins the Amazon in latitude 3 deg. 24 min. 18 sec. south. Flowing in the same direction, but further eastward, are the Tapajos, the Xingu, and the Tocantines, all descending from the great central mountains; the two former flow out of the province of Matto Grosso; the latter from the region of Goyaz, in about latitude 19 deg. south. The Tapajos takes a northerly course for more than 600 miles between the Xingu and the Madera (its whole course being computed to be 900 miles in length), and falls into the Amazon in latitude 2 deg. 24 min. 50 sec. south; longitude 55 deg. west. The Xingu has a course of about 1200 miles, the navigation of which is frequently interrupted by cataracts. The Tocantines, the largest of the three, is joined by the Araguaya in latitude 6 deg.; and the united stream, after a course of about 300 miles, flows into the southern estuary of the Amazon in latitude 1 deg. 40 min. south, about twenty leagues west of the city of Para. Its whole length is upwards of 900 miles. The Rio Negro, which falls in from the north, is a large, clear, navigable river, communicating also with the Oronoco by a branch, the Cassiquiari. A little above its mouth is the fishing and boat-building town of Manoa, or Barro de Rio Negros.

We have, in the first book of this volume,* briefly described the discovery of this mighty river by the intrepid traveller Orellana, who, in a frail craft, descended the Amazon from the mountains of Peru to its mouth; and whose descriptions gave rise in Europe to the kingdom of El Dorado, and the unfortunate expedition of Raleigh.

Gonzalo Pizarro, the brother of the conqueror of Peru, marched, in 1541, from Quito, with an army of 300 soldiers, and 4000 Indians to serve as bearers of burdens, to seek the imagined kingdom of gold, believed, from some accounts of the persecuted aborigines, to exist east of the Andes.

The monarch of this fabulous kingdom, was said, in order to wear a more magnificent attire than any other king in the world, to be adorned in a daily coating of gold. His body was anointed every morning with a rare and fragrant gum, and gold dust was blown over him through a tube. Thus attired, the Spaniards named him "El Dorado" (the Gilded King). He was said to reside generally in the superb city of Manoa: in one street of which there were said to have been no less than 3000 silversmiths or silver-workers. The columns of his palace were affirmed to be porphyry and alabaster; his throne ivory, and its steps gold; the body of the palace was of white stone, ornamented with golden suns and silver moons; living lions, fastened by chains of gold, guarded its entrance.

To conquer such a monarch, city, and kingdom, might well allure Gonzalo and his army onward against all physical obstructions. Never was an expedition more fatal, and the discovery of the Amazon as a great navigable river, uninter-

* See pages 46 and 47.

rupted by falls or rapids, to the ocean, and the non-existence of the El Dorado, have been the only fortunate result. Considering it imprudent to return back to Peru over the Andes, from the wretched state to which his followers had been reduced by more than a thousand deaths from fatigue and famine, he reached the banks of the Napo, a tributary of the Amazon. From that point he resolved to proceed down the stream, and constructed such a vessel as the circumstances of his condition enabled him to build. He sent this craft, under charge of Orellana and fifty men, down the Napo, to stop at such a place as water deep enough was found to take all on board. Orellana descended rapidly, and instead of waiting for Pizarro, he continued the voyage downwards, fought with the natives, called them Amazons, as women were seen to command them; built a larger vessel, and reached the sea in five months. He then proceeded to Spain, was pardoned for deserting Pizarro, and received a charter to conquer the regions he had discovered. He succeeded in raising funds and enlisting adventurers for an expedition; and with a fleet he arrived on the coast in 1544, but amid the numerous channels at the mouth of the river, he failed to find the main branch. After a month or two spent without being able to ascend the river, Orellana, with many of his followers, sunk under disease, and died.

Southey considers that "as a discoverer, he surpassed any of his countrymen; and if, as a conqueror, he was unfortunate, it is now the happier for him, having never had the opportunity of committing those atrocities which blackened the characters of many of his contemporaries." Southey has even gone so far as to attempt to give the name of Orellana to the whole mighty river, and to reject that of Marañon, as having the same origin as Maranhão;* and denounces Amazon, from its fiction. In his map, and generally, in all his references, he denominates the great river Orellana. *O Amazonas* is, however, the general name among all those who traverse its waters, or who live upon its banks.

Para, which was the aboriginal name, signifies the Father of Waters, and still imparts its name to the province through which the Amazon flows down, as well as to its capital. The Para is also the name of the southern branch.

About seventy years after the expedition of Orellana the Portuguese began to settle in Para. In 1616, Francisco Caldeira, the first chief captain, founded the city of Para. In 1637, two Franciscan friars and six soldiers, who formed a mission to the aborigines, near the frontiers of Peru, descended the Amazon from Quito. Some of the missionaries grew weary and returned; others travelled onward, until the natives attacked and killed the officer in charge of the soldiers. Dismayed at the dangers and obstacles of a journey back to Quito, the survivors committed themselves to the floods, in a weak craft, as Orellana had done nearly a century before. They reached Para in safety, but were unable to give

* Both words have the same origin, being derived from the Portuguese *mare*, the sea, and *não*, not, *not the sea*, as the great river near its mouth appears to be.

any satisfactory account of the countries through which they had passed. The dread of cannibals seems to have deprived them of the powers of observation.

During the same year, the first expedition to ascend the Amazon was equipped under the command of Pedro Teixeira, who, with seventy soldiers, 1200 natives, as rowers and bowmen, and numerous females and slaves, in all about 2000, embarked in forty-five canoes. The strength of the current and the difficulty of finding their course amid the intricacies of numerous channels, opposed great difficulties and fatigue. Many of the Indians deserted, but unceasing perseverance and able conduct, enabled Teixeira, after a voyage of eight months, to ascend to the head waters of that navigation. Leaving most of his men with his canoes at this place, he journeyed overland to Quito, where he was received with distinguished honours. He was, on his return, accompanied by several friars to record an account of the voyage. This record was the first authentic information collected and published to the world. The party reached Para, then called Belem, in December, 1739. Afterwards voyages up and down the Amazon became more common.

In 1745, M. de La Condamine descended from Quito, and constructed a map of the river, based upon a series of astronomical observations. His memoir, read before the Royal Academy on his return, is at this day a very interesting and instructive work. In modern times, the most celebrated written voyages down the Amazon are those of Spix, Martius, Mawe, and Lieutenant Smyth.*

* Most, but not all, the voyages on the Amazon have been unattended with calamity, but the sufferings of Madame Godin have been of the greatest hardship. Her husband was an astronomer, associated with M. de la Condamine. He had taken his family with him to reside in Quito, but being ordered to Cayenne, was obliged to leave them behind. Circumstances transpired to prevent his return for a period of sixteen years, and when finally he made the attempt to ascend the Amazon, he was taken sick and could not proceed. All letters or messages that he attempted to send his wife, failed to reach her. A rumour reached her, that an expedition had been despatched to meet her at some of the missions on the upper Amazon. She immediately set out on this perilous journey, accompanied by her family, including three females, two children, her brother, and two or three men. They passed over the Andes and down the tributary streams of the Amazon. As they descended they found the missions in desolation, from the ravages of the small-pox. The village where they expected to find Indians to conduct them down the river, had but two inhabitants surviving : who could not aid them, without guides or canoe-men, and ignorant of the navigation, their misery was now beyond description ; their canoe drifted down the current, and filled with water ; they escaped with some provisions. They formed a raft, which was soon after broken upon a *snag*, a partly sunken tree. They escaped to the river-bank, and attempted to proceed on foot, without map or compass. They were soon bewildered in the forest. Wild fruits and succulent plants now became their only food ; reduced by hunger, they soon fell victims to disease.

In a few days Madame Godin alone survived, amidst eight dead bodies ; she attempted to bury them, but was unable. After two days spent in mourning over the dead, she determined to make a last effort ; but she was nearly 3000 miles from the ocean, without food, and with her feet torn by walking amid the woods. Taking the shoes of one of the dead men she started upon her dreary way, during the day. At night she lay exhausted amid the most desolate wretchedness and horror. She was taken up on the ninth day at the river side, by a party of Indians in a canoe. They carried her to one of the missions, from which she was finally conveyed down the Amazon and restored to her husband, after nineteen years' separation. They returned to France together and lived in retirement ; but she never fully recovered from the effects of her sufferings.

Mr. Kidder saw a fellow countryman at Para, who had visited Brazil for his health, and having to a great degree recovered, he was induced to make a voyage up the great river. The best vessel

The voyager on the waters of the Amazon, above Para, will scarcely see fifty houses in 100 leagues. There are but few settlements directly on the river. Most of the small settlements are on the tributary streams, and on the *iguarapés*, or bayous. The houses have all mud floors and thatched roofs.

It is astonishing how feeble have been the attempts to navigate the magnificent inland navigation of Brazil, and especially the waters of the Amazon and its tributaries. During the year 1827, a steam-boat company was formed at New York, with the express purpose of carrying on that navigation. It originated at the suggestion of the Brazilian government through its chargé d'affaires, Mr. Rebello, then in the United States, who stipulated for them great encouragement, and a grant of special privileges on the part of Dom Pedro I. A steamboat was fitted out and sent to Para, and other heavy expenses were incurred by the company; but from want of co-operation on the part of Brazil, the enterprize failed.

During the last three years, small government steamers have three or four times plied as far up the Amazon as the River Negro. Such voyages will, no doubt, be repeated, but we fear that little more will be effected in extending steam navigation on the Amazon for many years to come. The main stream of the Amazon is navigable for more than 2000 miles; the Tocantins, the Xingú, the Tapajos, the Madera, the Negro, the Purus, the Beni, and other rivers, are navigable for several thousand more. They altogether flow through regions with rich soil, and the most luxurious vegetation, but their waters are now only disturbed by alligators and reptiles, and now and then by the uncouth though large canoes. A different population than the Portuguese must inhabit its banks and open its navigation before it can be profitable. It is even probable that the intercourse between the Atlantic and Peru, in the productions of the latter, east of the Andes, may be the first established line of steam navigation.

Exclusive of the want of population on the banks of the Amazon, and other political and moral obstacles to opening the trade and navigation of those magnificent regions of the world, the Brazilian government has, with respect to the navigation of the rivers and harbours of the sea coast, limited the foreign commerce to a few ports. In the fertile province of Pernambuco, for example, the harbour of that name is the only port open to commerce. In fact, the fear and jealousy of the government of Rio de Janeiro of the power and prosperity of the northern provinces, has led to the most pernicious restrictions on trade and intercourse. Penedo, at the mouth of the Francisco, is well adapted for foreign trade, though the bar of the river's entrance has not more than sixteen feet depth of water over it. Yet this port is closed to foreign trade, from the jealousy of Rio Janeiro, in which he could procure a passage was a miserable trading smack. The inconveniences he suffered on board, together with the lack of fresh provisions and suitable accommodations when he went on shore, brought upon him a renewed and aggravated attack of disease. He was fortunate enough to obtain a passage down in a Brazillian war-schooner; but he only survived a few months.

that the produce of the province of Minas Geraes might escape to sea by the former instead of the latter port.

The RIO FRANCISCO, which has its rise in Minas Geraes, and after flowing northward for a considerable distance along the great longitudinal valley at the foot of the Brazilian Andes, dividing Bahia from Minas Geraes, turns at length to the east, and, separating Bahia and Alagos from Sergipe, enters the ocean in about the 11th parallel of south latitude, completing a course of upwards of 1000 miles. This is the largest river of Brazil, independent of the Amazon or the Plata.

From the mouth of the Rio das Velhas to the falls of Paulo Affonso, the distance of 1000 miles, the waters of the San Francisco are suitable for navigation; but from the few inhabitants on its banks, and the want of enterprize, it is but little used as the means of transport. The falls of Paulo Affonso are described, by those who have seen them, as a sublime cataract, down which the river thunders in magnificent grandeur. Above the falls the waters of this river sometimes overflow its banks for some leagues on either side, and the inhabitants are compelled to resort to the hills for safety. They are at such times forced to communicate with each other by boats or canoes. The low adjoining country is fertilised by these inundations.

Mr. Cowper, in order to make an expedition through the interior country up to the falls of San Affonso, on the San Francisco, and to report on the navigation of that river, left Pernambuco in January, 1846, for Maceio, in the little province of Alagoas; from Maceio he proceeded inland, and his report to the foreign office, from which we derive the following information respecting San Francisco, is both interesting and instructive. We shall in this chapter confine ourselves to that part of the report which is descriptive of this river. Mr. Cowper, on reaching its banks, by a tedious route over streams, barrens, forests, and mountains, observes, that the river after rising in 20 deg. south, in the province of Minas Geraes, flows direct north-east for 700 miles, during the last 300 of which, dividing the provinces of Bahia and Pernambuco, it turns abruptly to the east, finally to the south-east, and after running in that direction for 300 additional miles, falls into the Atlantic between the insignificant provinces of Sergipe and Alagoas, in 10 deg. 35 sec. south.

The Rio St. Francisco thus not only flows over upwards of 300 leagues of territory, but it passes through some of the richest provinces of the empire, containing more than half its whole population.

The government of Rio de Janeiro, to cut off the provinces of Bahia and Pernambuco from the mouth of the San Francisco, created two new provinces: taking one from each of the above, merely from a spirit of jealousy; and although Penedo, near the mouth of the San Francisco, a prosperous town, seven leagues only from the sea, offers every facility for navigation, nothing has as yet

induced the government to make it a port for foreign trade. The cotton, sugar, and timber produced in its neighbourhood, are now shipped in large canoes, and are, by this wretched tortuous manner, carried to Maceio, Pernambuco, and Bahia.

No plausible objection can even be imagined to making Penedo a port, as at present the navigation of the Francisco is physically barred for fifty leagues, by the falls of Paulo Affonso, and therefore could not interfere with the commerce carried on between Minas and Rio de Janeiro. The throwing open of the lower portion of the River San Francisco, would at the same time be highly advantageous to Brazil, and to every nation with which she has commercial intercourse; especially if the navigation of the whole river were opened by a canal to surmount the falls.

The falls and their obstructive effects upon navigation may be said to extend for twenty-two leagues. The Barra de Moxotô, which Mr. Cowper reached on the 5th of February, 1846, he considers the centre of the cataracts or rapids above the great cascade, that is to say, three leagues above it, and three below the first falls of Itaparica. The river at Moxotô, is about a mile wide, and was on the 5th of February, about half-full as it is termed, which may be explained by stating that from Christmas to Easter, the rains of the interior flood the river, at which period it is full, and it gradually subsides until Michaelmas, when it is termed empty. From the Falls of the Itaparica to those of Paulo Affonso, the river is one roaring, hissing, boiling, foaming rapid, interspersed with rocky yellow limestone islands, the largest of which, the Ilha Tapuya, is covered with verdure; upon the banks there exists, at long intervals, a miserable house; the soil is dry and arid, producing scarcely any vegetation; it is the worst part of the *Catinga*, and near the great falls bears the fearful name of "*Os Morlds de Cuxocira*," few Europeans, indeed very few natives had visited this spot before Mr. Cowper, and it was with feelings nearly approaching to awe that he descended the banks of the river towards the falls. "At every step the rapids increased in force, noise, and fury, and shortly before disappearing from view amidst the spray, they literally appeared to shriek in the confusion of sounds at their inevitable fate; a hundred yards above the falls it is necessary to pass a small arm of the river, but so rapid is the current of the main body, that the water articulates like an artery; at one moment it is quite dry, at another full, for this reason it is called the "*Vai e Vem*," or "Go and come." From the Cascade of Itaparica to those of Paulo Affonso, the river runs nearly north and south, immediately below it turns at right angles to the east, it is consequently viewed from exactly opposite: the effect is stupendous. You stand upon a rock inaccessible from the water, it being quite perpendicular, it is almost upon a level with the top of the falls, which are about a quarter of a mile distant, these are composed of five distinct cascades, four of which present themselves at once to

the view, and cannot be less than 900 feet high, and half a mile broad, they are embosomed in an amphitheatre of rock, composed of the same yellow limestone, and have a huge solitary island of the same formation immediately before them, and in the centre of the amphitheatre, within the interstices of the rocks, vegetation springs forth, and upon their summits small trees, brushwood, and *cactaceæ*; from the continued spray, the tints of all these are most vivid, the rocks of the brightest sepia, and the vegetation of the richest green. Upon the Pernambuco side the first fall is an escada, or ladder fall, and passes to the left of the island, in a direct line from its summit, one vast sheet of foam, to the main land, from whence it is viewed, dashing itself with inexpressible fury against its base; the second and third falls are behind the island, and are the main falls, they dash against it with such force, that a solid body of water again rises in the air, and falling once more into the basin, throws up a spray which is seen for leagues, it then rushes round the right side of the island, is joined in its descent by the waters of the fourth fall, and they precipitate themselves to its base, there they unite with those of the first fall, dash against the mainland opposite, and then, apparently exhausted with their efforts, run rapidly, but smoothly, betwixt perpendicular rocks, not 100 yards apart, to the east; a quarter of a mile lower down, the fifth fall joins the rapids, which continue without intermission for sixteen leagues to Peraubas, on the Pernambuco side, and Canindi on the Bahia; at the angle formed by the river at the falls, there are two huge caves, the descent is effected with considerable risk by the bed of a small rivulet which runs into the lower basin of the falls, with bare feet and a steady eye, it is necessary to pass from rock to rock, one false step would be certain destruction. Upon reaching the caves, they consist of two immense hollows, 200 feet deep and 100 high; in the centre is a rock like a rostrum; the caves are infested by immense bats, who have deposited guano sufficient to load several vessels; at the mouth of the caves are quantities of timber, bones, &c., of trees and animals which have descended the falls." M. de Goussencourt, who accompanied Mr. Cowper, observed upon the spot, "that if all the falls of Italy and Germany which he had seen, were united, they would not equal those of Paulo Affonso."

For twenty-two leagues Mr. Cowper considers the river one vast cataract, at present insurmountable for the navigation to the upper river from the sea; but above San Affonso it is deep, broad, and said to be navigable for 200 leagues. Of various plans which have been proposed, Mr. Cowper considers that there are two which appear to be feasible, namely, a canal or a railroad; the former might be brought from Itaparica on the Bahia side, and running along parallel with the river through a marsh as far as the Great Cascade, or very nearly, might find its way along the base of the Muribeca Mountains to Canindi; the Bahia side he considered the most desirable, as owing to the angle formed in the course of the river at Paulo Affonso, it would be the shorter, forming the base

of a triangle. He had neither time nor means of examining the ground. He has no doubt that a canal of twenty or thirty leagues in length would open the navigation of the Francisco. The other plan would be to construct a railway from the Pernambuco side, above Itaparica, to the city of Pernambuco, but he apprehends this would be vastly more expensive than the former; and he also apprehends that no proposal, having for its object the opening of the navigation of the Rio San Francisco, particularly above the falls, would be favourably received at Rio de Janeiro. On leaving the falls, he re-crossed the "Catinga," passing the Fazendas de Gado of Cruzes, Salgado, Lagumes, Xinga, Falhado, and Olha d'Agoa, and the streamlet of Luca, and once more reached the San Francisco, on the 8th of February, at Peranhas, sixteen leagues below the falls; it is a place of some little commerce, being the spot to which *farinha*, and other necessities of life, are brought from the coast to the *sertao*: it contains about 300 inhabitants, and was at the time of his visit filled with refugees.

Peranhas, is so called from the quantities of fish of that name abounding in this part of the river. They render bathing extremely dangerous, are very small, of a red colour, and are so voracious and numerous, that they have been known to kill an ox before he could pass the stream. Another fish, called the *cherubim*, is peculiar to the Francisco, it grows to an enormous size, resembling a huge trout, excepting that the spots are black, is extremely rich and delicious eating, and would yield vast quantities of oil.

In his descent from Peranhas to Penedo, he passed several small towns and settlements, which exhibit a larger than ordinary population on its banks than in many other parts of Brazil.*

The distance from Peranhas to Penedo is about thirty-five leagues. He embarked with his horses at the former place in a huge canoe, and floated down with the rapid current to Penedo in two days and nights; on no one occasion did the boatmen use their oars. The scenery of the river is extremely grand, and resembles that of the Italian lakes. During the dry season large rocks appear above the water, leaving, however, a clear and deep channel for the navigation; it is everywhere interspersed with islands.

Penedo is about seven leagues from the sea, and is a flourishing place, containing 5000 inhabitants. *Villa Nova*, its rival, on the opposite bank, is greatly

* The following are the names of these places:—

Upon the Bahia and Sergipe side:—Cunendê, Ferada, Coleti, Angica, Caxoeira, Tacari, Capoeira, Carolina Nova, Carolina Vilha, Budeigo, Ilha de Ferra, Ospatos, Tacco Grande, Caxoeiro, Lagôa das Pedras, San Pedro, Aratica, Francisca e Julia, Os Porteiros, Ilha d'Ouro, Ilhadas Entaes, Terpete, Patuba, Lagoa Azeda, Coral das Pedras, Serra da Pabunsa, Boraco de, Maria Ferreira, Villa Nova.

Upon the Pernambuco and Abagoas side:—Piranhas, Barra de Cabaca, Bonita, Ilha de Ferra, Prairas, Pao Ferro, Pas d'Assucar, Espinas, Limoeira, Lagoa Furda, Barra de Panêma, Tacobim, Mundo Novo, Sacco, Queimado, Traipa, Serra de Pas d'Assucar, Serra de Pemea, San Braz, San Colegio, Ilha Munbu, Ilha Maunha, Alagoas, Bubenaré, Ilha de Corcia, Barra de Imbusica, Penedo.—See a catalogue and description of these woods hereafter in the Statistics of Brazil.

its inferior. The bar of the San Francisco has fifteen feet of water over it but the channel changes its place, owing to shifting sands.

Mr. Cowper procured specimens, at Penedo, of all the Brazilian woods which he considered adapted to ship-building, &c.

CHAPTER III.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.

Climate.—Although the greater part of Brazil lies within the tropics, a considerable portion of territory is in the southern temperate zone, and the climate varies greatly in its different regions. Extensive table-lands are elevated from 2000 to 2500 feet above the sea. The plains on the Rio Amazon, and those east of the mouth of that river, are characterised by excessive heat, and by rain falling during every month of the year. This climate appears to prevail as far south as 10 deg. latitude, with the exception of the country east of about 41 deg. west longitude, which suffers rather from drought. The second region comprehends the countries south of 10 deg. latitude, to the Serra dos Vertentes. The low country along the sea resembles in its climate that of tropical countries which are little elevated above the ocean, and with mountainous backgrounds. The heat is often oppressive in summer, and the rains are abundant. In other parts of the year little or no rain falls. The terraces, or elevated *steppes*, by which the country rises to the highest table-lands, partake in some degree of the peculiarities of this climate, where the ascent is rather steep, as between 18 deg. and 24 deg. south latitude; but where the country rises slowly, and the terraces are wide, as between 10 deg. and 18 deg. south latitude, rain is by no means abundant, and years often pass without a drop falling. On the table-lands the mean annual temperature seems to differ from that of the coast by eight or ten degrees. The rains are more regular than on the declivities, but they are far from being abundant, and the vegetation of this region is much less vigorous than along the loose soils of the sea coast. According to meteorological observations, it would seem that the rains diminish on proceeding westward, and that some of the western *Campos* are little better than arid deserts. In the most elevated table-lands night frosts are experienced, when the sun is near the northern tropic. The countries south of the Serra dos Vertentes are chiefly situated in the temperate zone, at least those east of 55 deg. west longitude, which are drained by the Paraná. The rains fall most abundantly in summer, but in other seasons rains are also frequent. The heat is moderate, and the vegetation, though vigorous, less so than towards the coast further north. The countries which are drained by the Paraguay, and lie west of 54 deg., have a much hotter

climate, and abundant tropical rains, but there is a long dry season in which no rain falls. In these parts frost does not occur. During the winter months south of 30 deg. latitude the table-land of Curitiba and the more elevated tracts towards the boundary of Uruguay seem to have a regular winter season of a few weeks, with occasional frost.*

In the northern parts, situated in the centre of the torrid zone, the air of the lower tracts is sultry and oppressive; but vegetation is vigorously nourished by the night dews. In these regions there is little distinction of seasons: the flowers are in perpetual bloom, the foliage is evergreen; and with the grandeur of the forests, and the delicious coolness of the nights, impart to the country and climate a perpetual spring. Near the coast, the trade-wind, which blows over the whole breadth of the Atlantic, imparts refreshing coolness to the atmosphere of these naturally sultry regions. The northern provinces, however, occasionally suffer from the want of rain. In ascending towards the sources of the great rivers, the temperature is modified by the elevation of the country, and as the distance increases from the equator. On the *Campos Pareris* and other similar *plateaux*, with arid soil, the solar heat is intolerable; but within many of the elevated districts of the interior, fertile valleys are found with a temperate and salubrious climate, where the vegetables and fruits of Europe will ripen. Such is the climate of parts of Minas Geraes and San Paulo. Towards the southern extremity of Brazil, and in the higher mountainous districts, the air is colder, and the soil yields European grain in great perfection. The west wind passing over vast marshy forests, is frequently found unhealthy in the interior. The northern provinces are at times subject to heavy rains, variable winds, torna-

* Mr. Kidder says, "The climate of Brazil is remarkably mild and regular. At Rio de Janeiro there cannot be said to be any regular rainy season. It would be difficult to fix on the months in which most rain may be expected. During the rains there is generally but little wind, and the temperature changes but slightly throughout the day. In dry weather the mornings and evenings are always cool, and the heat of the day is almost invariably mitigated by a strong sea-breeze.

"The south-east trade winds sweep the whole coast. From March to September, during the southerly monsoon, the prevailing winds are from east-by-north to east-south-east. During the northerly monsoon, from September to March, the winds are from north-by-east to north-east-by-east."

METEOROLOGICAL Table kept at Rio de Janeiro, 1838-1839.

MONTHS.	FAHRENHEIT'S THERMOMETER. MEAN TEMPERATURE.					WEATHER. NUMBER OF DAYS.		
	Sunrise.	Midday.	Sunset.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Clear.	Cloudy.	Rain.
July.....	63	78	73	84	58	14	7	10
August.....	61	78	67	85	54	17	9	5
September.....	65	81	68	92	58	23	4	3
October.....	71	87	76	102	62	15	11	5
November.....	71	86	76	96	62	11	13	6
December.....	75	90	80	102	70	20	7	4
January.....	75	95	81	101	72	12	15	4
February.....	74	95	76	108	71	16	6	6
March.....	73	88	76	93	65	13	12	6
April.....	71	87	75	95	63	16	5	9
May.....	64	80	74	88	60	18	6	7
June.....	63	77	71	83	58	25	2	3
The Year.....	69	85	74.5	108	54	200	97	68

(Continued.)

does, and thunder-storms ; while the southern regions have a more settled, temperate, and salubrious climate.

Soil.—An empire of such great extent as Brazil comprises every variety of soil, from the sandy lands of the sea coast to the ruggedness of the mountains ;—from the alluvions of the great and lesser rivers, to the undulated and wooded midlands, up to the pastures and bare plains of the table lands, and back to the arid *Campos*.

Fertility may be considered the general character of the soil ; but with some broad exceptions, as the arid plains of the interior, and the sandy and rocky districts.

Products and Agriculture.—Nearly all the trees and natural products which were found in the West Indies abound in the north parts of Brazil. In the forests and plains there are also many other natural products. In the southern or temperate provinces, the grains, vegetables, and fruits of Europe succeed, and wheat, barley, rice, maize, and tobacco are also grown. Within the tropics the chief products of agriculture are mandioca, rice, yams, bannanas, plantains, beans,

GENERAL Result of Meteorological Observations made during the Year 1842, in the City of the Recife de Pernambuco, by the late John Loudon, M.D., in his residence on the south side of the Rua d'Aterra Boa Vista.

M O N T H S.	Temperature by the Thermometers of Farenheit and Reaumur.						Humidity, calculated at mid-day by Saussure's Hygrometer.		
	Maximum.		Minimum.		Medium.		Maximum	Minimum	Medium.
	Farenheit.	Reaumur.	Farenheit	Reaumur.	Farenheit	Reaumur.	° /	° /	° /
January.....	86.00	24.00	72.00	17.77	79.59	21.26			
February.....	86.00	24.00	73.00	18.22	81.19	21.80			
March.....	87.00	24.44	72.00	17.77	81.80	22.13			
April.....	84.00	23.11	73.00	18.22	78.30	20.56			
May.....	83.00	22.66	71.00	17.33	78.22	24.54			
June.....	82.00	22.22	70.00	16.88	76.44	19.64			
July.....	82.00	22.22	67.00	15.55	75.38	19.28			
August.....	81.00	21.77	69.00	16.44	75.03	19.12	96.00	75.00	84.98
September.....	85.00	23.55	70.00	16.88	76.33	19.70	98.00	80.00	87.65
October.....	87.00	24.44	70.00	16.88	81.06	21.62	99.00	70.00	83.06
November.....	87.00	24.44	73.00	18.22	82.93	22.60	97.50	85.00	89.00
December.....	88.00	24.88	74.00	18.66	81.09	21.63	100.00	87.05	89.03
Medium.....	84.23	23.20	71.10	17.43	79.00	20.88	98.01	77.05	86.74

METEOROLOGICAL Observations—continued.

M O N T H S.	Atmospheric pressure at midday by Barometer.			Quantity of rain by English inches.	Number of days from which quarter the wind blew.		Number of days and nights in which it rained.	
	Maximum	Minimum.	Medium.		S. to E.	N. to E.	Days.	Nights.
January.....	° /	° /	° /	6.09	8	23	20	
February.....	..	..	..	2.01	..	28	3	
March.....	..	..	..	8.23	10	21	5	20
April.....	..	..	..	25.24	30	..	17	19
May.....	..	..	..	16.21	31	..	15	21
June.....	..	..	..	25.26	30	..	20	20
July.....	..	..	..	16.11	31	..	17	19
August.....	768.2	765.1	766.57	3.15	31	..	7	11
September.....	767.6	764.0	765.90	1.04	20	10	4	6
October.....	766.8	762.0	764.04	1.13	7	24	2	5
November.....	764.6	762.3	763.06	0.29	6	24	5	
December.....	764.7	761.4	763.05	1.31	4	26	9	5
Medium.....	766.4	762.5	764.6	109.27	208	156	124	130

and sweet potatoes, with coffee, sugar, cotton, and cacao; the four last-mentioned articles are chiefly cultivated for exportation. The forests supply excellent timber for ship-building and for the construction of houses; several kinds of wood for cabinet work, and others for dying; among the dye-woods, Brazil-wood and Campeche-wood are important articles of trade. Other products are vanilla, sarsaparilla, ipecacuhana, gingers, peppers, canella do clavo (from the *Persea caryophyllata*, Mart.) anatto, caoutchouc, copal, and copaivi balsam, pitch, Brazil nuts, tamarinds, tonca, and pechurim beans. Cinchona bark also exists, and many others abound.* The yerba-maté is found in the southern provinces and is exported, chiefly to Peru. Pine-apples, oranges, figs, and other fruits, ripen in perfection.

It is estimated that not more than one acre in 150 of the whole cultivable area of Brazil is under any kind of culture. Probably not one acre in 200.

Forests.—The interior consists, in many parts, of one continuous forest: at a little distance from the coast, the country, in some parts, is covered with numerous varieties of the palm-tree, among which is a remarkable species with long, serrated, lancet-formed leaves, composed of innumerable fibres, which rival silk both in fineness and in strength. The sandy soils of the coast are turned to account by plantations of the cocoa-tree, which grows here thicker and taller than in the East Indies. The Brazilians say, that this tree affords them both food and shelter. Of the trunk and the leaves their huts are built; of its fibrous roots baskets are made, and cordage of the outward husk; cups are made of the shell; its fruit supplies meat and drink; and an excellent oil is obtained by skimming the juice which may be pressed from the pulp. The cocoa kernel is in general use in cookery; and it forms an important article of internal trade. The carrapato, or castor-tree, is also an indigenous production, much cultivated for the sake of the oil extracted from the seed, which is in general use for lamps and other purposes: it also grows spontaneously. The ibiripitanga, or Brazil-wood tree, called in Pernambuco, the *pao da rainha* (queen's wood), on account of its being a government monopoly, is now rarely to be seen within many leagues of the coast, owing to the improvident manner in which it has been cut down by the government agents, without any regard being paid to the size of the tree or to its cultivation. It is not a lofty tree: at a short distance from the ground, innumerable branches grow forth and extend in every direction in a straggling, irregular, manner. The leaves are small and not luxuriant; the wood is very hard and heavy, takes a high polish, and sinks in water: the only valuable portion of it is the heart, as the outward coat of wood has not any peculiarity.† Besides these, we

* See lists of trees and barks hereafter, under the head of Statistics of Brazil.

† The name of this wood is derived from *brasas* (or *brazas*), a glowing fire or coal. Its botanical name is *Cæsalpinia Brasiletto*: it belongs to the genus *Lomentaceæ*, in Linnæus's nat. order, and is a leguminous plant, of the class *Decandria Monogynia*. The leaves are pinnated: the flowers are white, papilionaceous, growing in a pyramidal spike. One species has flowers variegated with red. The branches are slender and full of small prickles. There are nine species.

may enumerate among the vegetable productions of Brazil, the cedar, the wild cinnamon-tree, and the jacaranda, or rosewood, valuable for cabinet work ; the tatajuba, or fustic, yielding a yellow dye ; the Brazilian myrtle, a beautiful shrub ; the siccupira, resembling the teak of India ; the peroba, oraubu, and loiero, resembling a species of oak and larch ; logwood, mahogany, and a variety of forest-trees, invaluable for the purposes of ship-building.

The original forests are called in Brazil, *mato virgem*, virgin forests. Dr. Von Spix gives us the most graphic account that we have read of these forest regions. He says,

“ Almost every one of these sovereigns of the forest is distinguished, in the total effect of the picture, from its neighbour. While the silk-cotton-tree (*bombax pentandrum*), partly armed with strong thorns, begins at a considerable height from the ground to spread out its thick arms, and its digitated leaves are grouped in light and airy masses, the luxuriant lecythis and the Brazilian anda shoot out at a less height many branches profusely covered with leaves, which unite to form a verdant arcade. The jacaranda (rose-wood tree) attracts the eye by the lightness of its double-feathered leaves: the large gold-coloured flowers of this tree and the ipe (*bignonia chrysantha*), dazzle by their splendour, contrasted with the dark green of the foliage. The spondias (*s. myrobalanus*), arches its pinnated leaves into light oblong forms. A very peculiar and most striking effect in the picture is produced by the trumpet-tree (*cecropia peltata*), among the other lofty forms of the forest: the smooth ash-grey stems rise slightly bending to a considerable height, and spread out at the top into verticillate branches, which have at the extremities large tufts of deeply lobated white leaves. The flowering cæsalpinia ; the airy laurel ; the lofty geoffrœa ; the soap-trees with their shining leaves ;* the slender Barbadoes cedar ; the ormosia with its pinnated leaves ; the tapia or garlic pear-tree, so called from the strong smell of its bark ; the maina ; and a thousand not yet described trees, are mingled confusedly together, forming groups agreeably contrasted by the diversity of their forms and tints. Here and there, the dark crown of a Chilian fir (*araucaria imbricata*), among the lighter green, appears like a stranger amid the natives of the tropics ; while the towering stems of the palms with their waving crowns, are an incomparable ornament of the forests,† the beauty and majesty of which no language can describe.

The colour produced from this wood is greatly improved by a solution of tin in aqua regia, which, when mixed with the aqueous tincture, affords a beautiful precipitate of a purplish crimson, substituted sometimes for lake. It is used for dyeing silk what is called *false crimson*, to distinguish it from that produced by cochineal. It is indigenous to both the East and the West Indies, and is the same as Sapan wood.

* *Sapindus saponaria*. The fruit is brought to the city in large quantities ; the poorer class use them instead of soap. “ In many years, one of these trees, which are generally about the size of our nut-trees, produces several bushes of this fruit, which contains a great quantity of saponaceous matter.”—*V. Spix*, p. 280.

† The cocoa-palm is frequently seen above thirty feet high. Mr. Mawe measured a fallen tree (he does not mention the species), which was full seventy-six inches in diameter at the thick end, and above twenty-five yards in length. Prince Maximilian says—“ The colossal trees are so lofty, that our fowling-pieces could not carry to the top of them, so that we often fired in vain at the finest birds.”—*Travels*, p. 43.

Mr. Luccock describes a very singular tree, “ one of those vegetable productions,” he says, “ whose size astonishes the English traveller. It is here called a *gamelleiro* (from *gamella*, a great wooden bowl or trough) because from its trunk are turned those large bowls which are used as baths. The smallest part of its stem was eight feet above the ground, and there the circumference measured fourteen feet. Immediately below this line the roots begin to project in the manner of buttresses, and produce that kind of timber which is particularly esteemed in forming the knees of large ships. These terminate in the roots, which run along the surface of the ground, and appear above it in a circle of seventy-six paces, each of which was intended to measure a yard. One of these roots, at the distance of sixteen feet from the body of the tree, rose wholly above the soil: its girth measured four feet. The branches, which begin to expand immediately above the line where the trunk was measured, extend on each side thirty-five feet, so that the whole head forms a well-clothed hemisphere of more than 200 feet in circumference.”—*Notes, &c.*, p. 393.

"If the eye turns from the proud forms of those ancient denizens of the forest, to the more humble and lower which clothe the ground with a rich verdure, it is delighted with the splendour and gay variety of the flowers. The purple blossoms of the *rhexia*; profuse clusters of the *melastoma*, myrtles, and the *eugenia*; the delicate foliage of many *rubiacæ* and *ardisiæ*, their pretty flowers blended with the singularly formed leaves of the *theophrasta*; the *conchorcarpus*; the reed-like dwarf palms; the brilliant spadix of the *costus*; the ragged hedges of the *maranta*, from which a squamous fern rises; the magnificent *stiftia*, thorny *solana*, large flowering gardenias and *coutereas*, enlivened with garlands of *mikonia* and *bignonia*; the far-spreading shoots of the mellifluous *paulinias*, *dalechampias*, and the *baubinea* with its strangely lobated leaves; strings of the leafless milky *lianes* (bind-weed), which descend from the highest summits of the trees, or closely twine round the strongest trunks, and gradually kill them; lastly, those parasitical plants by which old trees are invested with the garment of youth, the grotesque species of the *pothos* and the *arum*, the superb flowers of the *orchideæ*, the *bromelias* which catch the rain-water, the *tillandsia*, hanging down like *lichen pulmonarius*, and a multiplicity of strangely formed ferns: all these admirable productions combine to form a scene which alternately fills the European naturalist with delight and astonishment.

"But the animal kingdom which peoples those ancient forests, is not less distinguished than the vegetable world. The naturalist who is here for the first time, does not know whether he shall most admire the forms, hues, or voices of the animals. Except at noon, when all living creatures in the torrid zone seek shade and repose, and when a solemn silence is diffused over the scene illumined by the dazzling beams of the sun, every hour of the day calls into action a distinct race of animals. The morning is ushered in by the howling of the monkeys, the high and deep notes of the tree-frogs and toads, the monotonous chirp of the grasshoppers and locusts. When the rising sun has dispelled the mists which preceded it, all creatures rejoice in the return of day. The wasps leave their long nests which hang down from the branches; the ants issue from their dwellings, curiously built of clay, with which they cover the trees, and commence their journey on the paths they have made for themselves, as is done also by the termites, which cast up the earth high and far around.* The gayest butterflies, rivalling in splendour the colours of the rainbow, especially numerous *hesperiæ*, flutter from flower to flower, or seek their food on the rocks, or, collected in separate companies, on the cool streams.† The blue shining *Menelaus*, *Nestor*, *Adonis*, *Laertas*, the bluish-white *Idea*, and the large *Eurolychus* with its ocellated wings, hover like birds between the green bushes in the moist valleys. The *Feronia*, with rustling wings, flies rapidly from tree to tree, while the owl-moth (*noctua strix*), the largest of the moth kind, sits immoveably on the trunk, with outspread wings awaiting the approach of evening. Myriads of the most brilliant beetles buzz in the air, and sparkle like jewels on the fresh green of the leaves, or on the odorous flowers. Meantime, agile lizards, remarkable for their form, size, and brilliant colours,

* "It is scarcely possible," says Mr. Luccock, "to conceive of a greater plague than that which is produced by the ants. In the forests below, they form their nests beneath the surface of the ground, or pile cones of sand, eight or ten feet high, generally round the root or stem of a tree. But, on these heights, their nests stand by the roadside, in the form of rough pillars made of earth and leaves, more than eight feet high and three in diameter. They resemble bee-hives in shape; and at first I thought them the production and abode of bees; for some of them have been opened with a *machado* (axe), for the purpose, as I was told, of procuring honey. Examining them, I found the inside hollow and very black; the walls were from six inches to a foot thick, and full of innumerable passages communicating with each other, but with the external air only at the base, which is a little contracted and thus sheltered from rain. The upper part frequently appears patched, as though an addition had been made to the cells, or a breach repaired. Whether the bees drive out the ants, or only take possession of a deserted hive, I know not; but I found they were of a small brown species, such as I had never noticed below. Within the hollow they deposit their round balls of wax and honey, and are deprived of it by travellers."—*Notes, &c.*, pp. 404-5.

Henderson enumerates, among the various species of the Brazilian bee, "the *cupimeira*, so denominated because it occupies the houses deserted by the *cupim* (ant)."

† A collection of 1600 different species of butterflies was made in Brazil some years ago.

and dark-coloured, poisonous, or harmless serpents, which exceed in splendour the enamel of the flowers, glide out of the leaves, the hollows of the trees, and holes in the ground, and, creeping up the stems, bask in the sun, and lie in wait for insects and birds. From this moment all is life and activity. Squirrels and troops of gregarious monkeys issue inquisitively from the interior of the woods to the plantations, and leap, whistling and chattering, from tree to tree. Gallinaceous jacks,* hoovers,† and pigeons, leave the branches, and wander about on the moist ground in the woods. Other birds of the most singular forms, and of the most superb plumage, flutter singly or in companies through the fragrant bushes. The green, blue, or red parrots, assembled on the tops of the trees, or flying towards the plantations and islands, fill the air with their screams. The toucan, sitting on the extreme branches, rattles with his large hollow bill, and in loud plaintive tones calls for rain. The busy orioles creep out of their long, pendent, bag-shaped nests to visit the orange-trees, and their sentinels announce, with a loud screaming cry, the approach of man. The fly-catchers, sitting aloof, watching for insects, dart from the trees and shrubs, and with rapid flight catch the hovering Menelaus, or the shining flies, as they buzz by. Meantime, the amorous thrush‡ (*turdus Orpheus*), concealed in the thicket, pours forth her joy in a strain of beautiful melody; the chattering manakins, calling from the close bushes, sometimes here, sometimes there, in the full tones of the nightingale, amuse themselves in misleading the hunters; and the woodpecker makes the distant forests resound while he pecks the bark from the trees. Above all these strange voices, the metallic tones of the uraponga (or guiraponga) sound from the tops of the highest trees, resembling the strokes of the hammer on the anvil, which appearing nearer or more remote according to the position of the songster, fill the wanderer with astonishment. While thus every living creature by its actions and voice greets the splendour of the day, the delicate humming-birds, rivalling in beauty and lustre diamonds, emeralds, and sapphires, hover round the brightest flowers.§

* The jacu is the size of a large capon, black, with the figure of a turkey-hen. The jacu-tinga and jacu-penba are varieties of the same genus.

† Probably the *soco* is meant, described by Henderson as about the size of a large capon, without a tail; there are several species, a white, an ash-coloured, and other varieties.

‡ Alluding, apparently, to this bird, the author says in another place: "We first observed in these woods the notes of a greyish-brown bird, probably a thrush, which frequents the bushes and grounds in damp, low woods, and sings with numerous repetitions through the musical scale from H 1 to A 2 (of the German scale) so regularly, that not a single note is wanting. It commonly sings each note four or five times over, and then proceeds imperceptibly to the following quarter-tone. It is usual to deny to the songsters of the American forests all melody and expression, and to allow them no pre-eminence but splendour of plumage. But if, in general, the pretty natives of the torrid zone are more distinguished by the beauty of their colours, than by fulness and power of note, and seem inferior to our nightingale in clearness and melodiousness of tone, yet, this little bird, among others, is a proof that they are, at least, not destitute of the principles of melody."—Vol. i. p. 287.

Mr. Henderson, in his list of Brazilian birds, has the *sabia*, "a kind of thrush, and the greatest singer in the Brazil: its song does not differ from the blackbird." Prince Maximilian notices the same bird. "The red-bellied thrush, here called *sabiah*, sat pouring forth its melancholy though pleasing song on the tops of the bushes." (*Travels*, p. 53). Mr. Luccock has a remarkable anecdote of this bird. "The incident, an affecting one, led him, he says, to doubt whether the song of birds is always an indication of pleasurable feeling. He had shot a 'sabiari,' whose note he describes as very full and melodious. 'Though badly wounded, it struck up a song, and continued it to almost its latest moments.'—*Notes*, &c., p. 307.

§ "The *Colibri*, or humming-bird, known in Brazil only by the name of *Beija Flor* (kiss the flower), is the smallest bird existing. Their varieties have been stated at six or seven, but there are a great many more. Padre Cazal has seen ten different kinds. A European would never have supposed that a bird so small as the end of one's finger, could exist, furnished as it is with a bill, feathers, wings, and intestines, similar to the larger kind; and he would be naturally disposed to consider it as but a creature of imagination, until he visited its native country, and daily beheld it fluttering like a butterfly at every flower, and humming a gentle chirrup. It has long wings compared with the size of the body. The largest, of the size of a very small wren, are of an indigo colour, with a white spot upon the back. The second species differs from the first only in being smaller, and not having a spot, both have a long tail much forked. The third kind and size are gray, and make their nests in inhabited houses, in the form of a little pocket, suspended from the

“ When the sun goes down, most of the animals retire to rest: only the slender deer, the shy peccari, the timid agouti, and the tapir, still graze around; the nasua and the opossum, and the cunning animals of the feline race, steal through the obscurity of the wood, watching for prey; till at last, the howling monkeys, the sloth with a cry as of one in distress, the croaking frogs, and the chirping grasshoppers with their monotonous note, conclude the day. The cries of the macuc, the capueira, and the goat-sucker (*caprimulgus*), and the bass tones of the bull-frogs, announce the approach of night. Millions of luminous beetles now begin to fly about like *ignes fatui*, and the blood-sucking bats hover like phantoms in the profound darkness of the night.”*

In Brazil, man has much less to fear from wild beasts than from reptiles, the species of which are almost innumerable, and the greater part are said to be venomous. This, together with the plague of mosquitoes and other winged enemies, must be admitted to form some drawback on the beauty and luxurious temperature of the climate.† As the ground, however, becomes cleared, and the marshy

point of a straw. The fourth variety are entirely green. The fifth are the same colour and size, with a white spot upon the breast. The sixth differs from the preceding only in having a very short tail. The seventh is of the same colour and size, with the tail yellow. The eighth is the colour of the nightingale, the breast finely speckled with white. The ninth is of a brilliant green, with the wings and tail dark, the beak short, slender, and yellow: all the others have it long, pointed, very delicate and straight, with the exception of the gray ones and those of the nightingale colour, who have it a little curved. The tenth kind is dark, or almost black, with a short tail of the colour of fire, the bill black and of medium length: when turned towards the spectator, the throat and breast exhibit at one instant various colours, according to the movements of the bird; at one time that of Aurora when most bright, or like gold melted in the crucible, followed on a sudden, sometimes by a suffusion of green, at other times by blue, or by white, without ever losing its inimitable brilliancy. The head, which is black, appears ornamented with a little crest of the same colour, when the bird has its side towards the observer: when it presents the front it appears studded with sparkling rubies, or all of a brilliant scarlet, which insensibly changes to refulgent yellow. They generally have the tongue very long, the legs exceedingly short, and the eyes black. Their principal aliment is the juice of honey of flowers, which they extract, not as the bee, but in the same manner as the butterfly. Some of them have the tongue cleft.”—*Henderson's History of Brazil. Appendix, pp. 509, 510.*

* Von Spix, vol. i. pp. 239—49.

† “ The finest orange-groves frequently fall a prey to the brown ants, which gnaw off the bark, or to the mole crickets, which devour the roots. The young mandioca and sugar plantations are often invaded, stripped of their leaves, and laid waste by similar enemies in incredible numbers or deprived of their roots by the wasps which live under ground. But even when the crop has happily reached maturity, the owner must share it with many foreign guests. Swarms of monkeys, flocks of parrots and other birds, attack the plantations; the paca, agouti, and other kinds of wild swine, eat up the leaves, stalks, and fruits; and myriads of tenthedroes injure the crop. The planter himself, particularly if he has just arrived from Europe, and is unaccustomed to this climate, has many hard trials to undergo from tormenting animals. If he does not keep his dwelling closed, particularly in the morning, evening, and at night, there are swarms of large and small mosquitoes which torment him with their stings, even through the thickest clothes; and only gauze or silk can secure him against these enemies. The earth-flies (*pulex penetrans*) which are concealed in numbers in the sand, penetrate under the nails of the hands and feet, and by producing a blister filled with little eggs, cause the most painful sensations, which, if the sympathetic swelling of the inguinal glands is neglected, are often followed by mortification. The blister, as soon as it gives pain, must be carefully removed, and snuff rubbed into the wound. Besides these, the inhabitant has often other enemies in his house. The white-bellied ant (*cupim, termes fatale*), a great number of blattæ, and other vermin, continually oblige him, by their destructive fury, to make new arrangements. The former cause the most terrible devastation wherever they pass in their course, for, metals excepted, they gnaw through every thing; and in a few days, the beams of the house are rotten; the linen, books, and all the household furniture are destroyed. The blatta commits great destruction among the vegetables in particular, and, in the night, even attacks the tips of the fingers. Without are numberless enemies. Not to mention the savage ounce, the poisonous serpents, lizards, scorpions, centipedes, and spiders, which, fortunately, are not frequently met with, and wound a person only when provoked; the mite (*acarus*), called *carabatos*, is one of the most formidable plagues. These little animals, from the size of a poppy-seed to that of a linseed, live in societies, and crowded by hundreds in the grass and on dry leaves.

lands are drained, most of the reptiles and insects are gradually expelled or diminished. The primeval forests are giving way, but not by any means so rapidly and effectually as in Anglo-America, before the axe and the flames; and their various tenants retreat to regions more remote from the invasion of man.

The luxuriant power of vegetation in the fertile soil of Brazil produces the greatest variety of plants. When the trunk of a tree has a decayed hole or a crevice in it, arum, caladium, dracontium, and other productions of that kind, throw out large tufts of juicy, heart-shaped or arrow-shaped, dark-green leaves, which add to and embellish the forests.

In some places, where the forests have been burnt down to clear the ground for cultivation, the immense scorched trunks appear like the ruins of colonnades, still in parts joined together by the withered stalks of their parasites. Sometimes, the climbing plants so interlace and surround the larger trees, that it is impossible for the eye to penetrate the "verdant wall." Many of them are decked with the most brilliant flowers; one kind of bromelia, with a deep coral-red flower, has its leaves tipped with violet: the heliconia, a kind of banana, has a dark-red calyx and white flowers. The bauhinia with its strong woody branches growing in alternate arcs of circles, and the concavity of each hollowed, with a short blunt thorn on the convex side, climbs to the tops of the highest trees. Many of these creeping plants shoot downwards their long branches, which, taking root, impede the progress of the traveller. "In general," says the Prince Maximilian, "vegetation is so luxuriant in these climates, that every old tree we saw, presented a botanical garden of plants, often difficult to come at, and certainly for the most part unknown." "Even the rocks," remarks the same traveller, "are here covered with lichens and cryptogamous plants of a thousand various kinds; particularly the finest ferns, which in part hang like feathered ribbons in the most picturesque manner from the trees. A deep red horizontal fungus adorns the dry trunks; while a fine carmine-coloured lichen (on the properties of which, as a dyeing matter, some experiments have been made in England), covers the bark of the stronger trees with its round knobs."*

Mr. Luccock describes the various tints of a Brazilian forest as extending

As soon as the traveller touches such a plant, they very quickly penetrate through his clothes to the skin, where they eat in, particularly in the more tender parts, and cause an intolerable itching, which is increased by the inevitable rubbing, and in the end produces an inflamed blister."—*Von Spix's Travels*, vol. i. pp. 258—60.

"With such a fulness of life, and such a vigorous striving at development, even so rich and fertile a soil is incapable of furnishing the necessary nourishment in sufficient abundance. Hence, the gigantic trees are in a constant struggle for their own preservation, and impede each other's growth still more than the trees in our forests. Even stems which have grown to a considerable height, requiring a large supply of nutriment, feel the influence of their more powerful neighbours, are suddenly arrested in their growth by being deprived of the requisite juices, and thus become in a short time subject to a rapid dissolution. We thus see the noblest trees after suffering an atrophy of some months' duration, eaten away by ants and other insects, seized with decay from the root to the summit, till, to the terror of the solitary inhabitants of the forest, they fall down with a tremendous crash."—*Von Spix*, vol. i. p. 243."

* Maximilian's Travels, p. 43.

from a light-yellow green, to one bordering on blue, and these are mingled again with red, brown, and a gradation of deeper shades almost to black. The "silver tree" is of a brilliant white; the head of the mangoa is brown. The Brazil-wood puts forth large flowers of a purple hue; "and I have seen," he says, "the vast mountain of Tengua clothed in yellow, from the multitude of its laburnums." The effect of the flowering parasitical plants he compares to "gay parterres in the air."

The same traveller witnessed, in 1816, on a comparatively diminutive scale, one of those magnificent conflagrations which not unfrequently take place in the forests, occasioned sometimes by lightning, sometimes by the carelessness of travellers.

"Fire," he says, "had seized upon an adjoining forest, and devoured about half a league square of it. Being to windward, and not incommoded by the smoke, I approached as near as the heat would allow me, or the embers suffer a well-broken horse to advance. It is not in my power, however, to communicate more than a very faint idea of the sublime picture. I was in the midst of several hundred stems, as large as the middle-sized British oak, all black and smoking, from whose smouldering remnants continually fell half-consumed branches, and smaller pieces of charred wood, which, broken and breaking others in their fall, formed a shower of sparks, rendered vivid by their passage through the air. The ground was covered with these charred arms, with embers, and with ashes, whence arose small spiracles of grey smoke, as if escaping through crevices from an immense furnace, hidden and burning beneath. At some little distance in front, the fire raged in all its fury. From the burning underwood, the flames rushed upwards in large sheets, which expired in the air, or seizing the dried leaves of those monarchs of the forest which had defied all former storms, instantly set the whole head in a blaze; and the crackling twigs formed a harsh counter to the surf-like roar of the flame below. While the fire spread itself, eating the forest all around, and became more active by every breeze, the remaining stumps in its immediate rear stood like piles of living coal, and seemed to writhe as under the influence of a liquid poison, creeping through their veins. The wintry appearance of those naked branches which preserved their station, and of the ground thickly strewn with ruins and black ashes, while flames surrounded me, and the heat of the atmosphere was almost intolerably oppressive, formed a contrast which cannot be described, an incongruous scene of desolation, which no art can represent."*

How this conflagration commenced no one thought it worth while to inquire: it seemed to pass almost unnoticed, as it had not endangered any farm or plantation. In the year 1796, a conflagration broke out on the summit of the Tengua, which lasted for nine months, and was mistaken by some persons for a volcanic eruption. It was at length quenched by the rains. The spot, M. Luccock says, is still marked by the diminutive size of the trees, and the colour of the foliage. In proportion as any tract is cleared of wood, the birds of prey become less numerous, while the smaller kinds increase and multiply. In one instance, this traveller noticed great numbers of small birds "like the linnet and canary,"† where the land had been partially brought under cultivation. The marshy mea-

* Luccock's Notes, &c., pp. 357, 8.

† The *canario* has the form, and almost the same colour, but not the song, of the native of the Canary Islands: it is the first among the small birds that announces the dawn of day. The *cardinal* (cardinal) resembles the linnet, but is a little larger. It derives its name from a small crimson cap, or hood, which covers part of the neck: its song is loud and pleasant.

dows abound with the hawk-heron, the American lapwing, and plovers and water-fowl in abundance.* The shining violet oriole, and the razor-billed black-bird are the common inhabitants of the fields and hedges.

The luxuriance and richness of the vegetable world in South America is ascribed by Humboldt to the great moisture which everywhere prevails, and which gives it an advantage over all other hot countries, forming a more happy and fertile contrast to those parts of Africa which lie within the same parallels of latitude. In many respects the climate, the soil, the varied surface, and the rich vegetation, seem to resemble more some parts of Asia Minor. But in that exuberance of evergreen foliage which forms the peculiar characteristic of the New Continent—in the number of its richly-wooded mountains, the sources of countless springs—in the abundance of large streams, in the character even of its sandless deserts and indomitable forests—the tropical regions of Brazil are almost pre-eminent to those of any other region.

The Amazonian forests, or those which stretch inland from the banks and tributaries of the Amazon, are especially remarkable for luxuriance of growth and the majestic grandeur of the trees. Many of the trees often grow to a great height, and remarkably straight upwards. Some of them are decked from the roots upwards with splendid flowers and parasites, and the trunks and boughs are frequently interlaced with innumerable runners or creeping vines.

On the borders of the Amazon the sylvan vegetation grows up and spreads forth in the greatest luxuriance. The vines, creepers, and parasites, twist around the trees up to their tops, then grow down to the ground, and then, taking root, run up again, spirally along the boughs, extending from the branches of one tree to those of another, interlace the whole forest. This interweaving of vines and parasites, is often impenetrable to birds or beasts. The stems of the vines are as thick as a man's arm; they are round, square, sometimes triangular, or even pentangular. The vines or parasites often grow in various forms of knots, screws, angles, or circles, and as tough as the most elastic fibrous substance. They constitute at times, as it were, a vegetable boa-constrictor, and twine, and press round, until they finally smother, and kill, the tree which so long supported them; and they occasionally remain erect, like a spiral column, after the trunk has mouldered away. This vegetable kingdom may be considered the peculiar country of monkeys.

Prince Maximilian, speaking of his crossing over the Sierra of Una, where thick gigantic forests grow on the acclivity, observes, that they are full of

* Mr. Luccock thus describes a species of heron, which he calls "the plumed succoo. This shy but interesting bird is nearly as large as the common stork, white, with a yellow bill and legs: it is distinguished by a tuft of feathers, which grows from a membrane between the scapulars, and reaches the whole length of the back, resembling the bird of paradise." Mr. Henderson enumerates the *cegonha* or stork, "similar to that of Europe;" the *garca*, or heron; the *tuyuyu*, "the height of a man," which also lives on fish; the scarlet *guara*; and the rose-coloured *colhereira*, a delicate and beautiful bird, "the king of the morasses."

monkeys, parrots, and other Brazilian animals and birds. In particular, a small red-and-gold-coloured monkey (*simia rosalia*) was seen here, called the red *sahui*, or *marikina*, which is not found further north.

"Good Brazilian hunters," he remarks, "possess a wonderful talent for exploring these forests: their bodies being inured to fatigue, and the custom of always going barefoot, give them a great superiority in this employment. Their dress consists of a light shirt and cotton drawers. They often have a cloth jacket hanging over their shoulders, which they put on when it rains, or in the cool nights. The head is covered with a felt or straw hat. A leather belt, passing over the shoulder, holds the powder-horn and shot-bag, while the lock of the long fowling-piece is generally secured by the skin of some animal."

The interior of Brazil has been traversed by many scientific travellers. Among whom, Prince Maximilian's land journey from Rio de Janeiro to Bahia, through the interior and central parts; Von Spix, Martius, Von Langsdorff, Eschwege, Rodrigues, Martius, St. Hilaire, and Natterer are among the most distinguished.* The following are condensed sketches of the various sceneries and productions over which these enterprising men travelled.

A CAMPO, OR MOUNTAIN PLAIN.

Von Spix speaks of the transition from the dark, low forests to the free, open tracts, as producing a striking change of feeling; and as a contrast to the foregoing picture of a Brazilian forest.

"On these serene and tranquil heights, the noisy inhabitants of the wood are mute: we no longer hear the howling of herds of monkeys, the incessant screams of innumerable parrots, orioles, and toucans, the far-sounding hammering of the woodpeckers, the metallic notes of the uraponga, the full tones of manakins, the cry of the hoccoes, jacues, &c. The more numerous are the humming-birds,

* St. Hilaire, the author of the "*Plantes Usuelles*," became fully acquainted with the Brazilian character, and for a long time identified himself with the inhabitants of the *sertoens*. Mr. Natterer, a German naturalist, spent seven years in traversing the interior. The scientific mission to Brazil, sent out by the King of Bavaria, was directed and executed by Doctors von Spix and Martius. They travelled from Rio de Janeiro through San Paulo, Minas Geraes, and Goyaz, to Maranhão; thence by sea to Pará, they ascended the Amazon as far as Tabatinga, which is near Tavori, the western limit of the Brazilian territory. They made numerous lateral excursions on the rivers Negro, Japury, and other streams, and descended the Amazon to Pará, whence they returned to Europe. They have presented to the world valuable works, the result of their observations.

The scientific commissioners appointed by the Emperor of Russia to explore Brazil, was on a larger scale; but far less fortunate. The Baron von Langsdorff, who had long resided at Rio Janeiro in a diplomatic capacity, was placed at its head, and directed its plans with great energy. This Russian expedition proceeded from Rio de Janeiro through San Paulo and Matto Grosso. It arrived at the sources of the Madera, when the party divided, and pursued different routes, in order to explore as wide an extent of country as possible before reaching their fixed destination, the city of Pará. The toils and hardships of the journey brought on sickness, and several died.

One very unwise regulation of the expedition, prohibited any member of the expedition to publish his journal or notes until after those of the director, if living, had been edited. The Baron von Langsdorff returned to Europe in a state of insanity, caused by sickness and exposure in the wild regions over which he had travelled. In that state, we are informed, he survives; and we have, whether from this or from any political cause, no account of the Russian travels and observations in Brazil. M. Riedel, one of his coadjutors, who returned to Rio de Janeiro, and remained there, is considered better acquainted with the botany of Brazil than any other person.

buzzing like bees round the flowering shrubs; gay butterflies fluttering over the rippling streams; numerous wasps flying in and out of their long nests hanging suspended to the trees; and large hornets (*morimbondos*) hovering over the ground, which is undermined to a great extent with their cells. The red-capped and hooded fly-catcher, the *barbudos* (the barbet), little sparrow-hawks, the rusty-red or spotted *caboré* (Brazilian owl), bask on the shrubs during the heat of noon, and watch, concealed among the branches, for the small birds and insects which fly by; the tinamus walks slowly among the pine-apple plants, *enapupés* and *nambús* in the grass; single toucans, seeking berries, hop among the branches; the purple tanagers follow each other in amorous pursuit from tree to tree; the *caracarà* (*falco brasiliensis*), flying about the roads quite tame, to settle upon the backs of the mules or oxen; small woodpeckers silently creep up the trees, and look in the bark for insects; the rusty thrush, called *João de Barros*, fearlessly fixes its oven-shaped nest quite low between the branches; the siskin-like creeper slips imperceptibly from its nest (which, like that of the pigeons, is built of twigs, and hangs down from the branches to the length of several feet), to add a new division to it for this year: the *cãoha*, sitting still on the tops of the trees, looks down after the serpents basking on the roads, which, even though poisonous, constitute its food; and sometimes, when it sees people approaching, it sets up a cry of distress, resembling a human voice. It is very rarely that the tranquillity of the place is interrupted, when garrulous orioles and little parrots and parroquets, coming in flocks from the maize and cotton plantations in the neighbouring wood, alight upon the single trees on the campos, and with terrible cries appear still to contend for the booty; or bands of restless hooded cuckoos, crowded together upon the branches, defend, with a noisy croaking, their common nest, which is full of green-speckled eggs. Alarmed by this noise, or by passing travellers, numerous families of little pigeons (*rolas*), often no bigger than a sparrow, fly from bush to bush; the larger pigeons (*amarzoga* and *troquase*), seeking singly among the bushes for food, hasten alarmed to the summits of the neighbouring wood, where their brilliant plumage shines in the sun; numerous flocks of little monkeys run whistling and hissing to the recesses of the forest; the *cavies*, running about on the tops of the mountains, hastily secrete themselves under loose stones; the American ostriches (*emus*), which herd in families, gallop at the slightest noise, like horses through the bushes, and over hills and valleys, accompanied by their young; the dicholopus (*siriemas*), which pursues serpents, flies, sometimes sinking into the grass, sometimes rising into the trees, or rapidly climbing the summits of the hills, where it sends forth its loud, deceitful cry, resembling that of the bustard; the terrified armadillo (*tatú*), runs fearfully about to look for a hiding-place, or, when the danger presses, sinks into its armour; the ant-eater (*tamanduá*), runs heavily through the plain, and, in case of need, lying on its back, threatens its pursuers with its sharp claws. Far from

all noise, the slender deer, the black tapir, or the pecari, feed on the skirts of the forest. Elevated above all this, the red-headed vulture (*urubú*) soars in the higher regions; the dangerous rattle-snake (*cascaoel*), hidden in the grasses, excites terror by its rattle; the gigantic snake sports suspended from the tree with its head upon the ground: and the crocodile, resembling the trunk of a tree, basks in the sun on the banks of the pools. After all this has passed, during the day, before the eyes of the traveller, the approach of night, with the chirping of grasshoppers, the monotonous cry of the goat-sucker (*João corta páo*), the barking of the prowling wolf and of the shy fox, or the roaring of the ounces, completes the singular picture of the animal kingdom in these peaceful plains.* The foregoing constitutes a remarkably descriptive picture of scenery, and its natural inhabitants.

In travelling from San Paulo to Villa Rica, there is a gradual change in the general appearance of the country, after passing the boundary which divides the waters flowing south to the Rio Grande, from those which run northwards, and fall into the Rio de San Francisco. "While the Rio Grande, with the thundering noise of its fall, here takes leave of its native mountains, to flow to the lower countries towards the west, it at the same time prepares the wanderer for grander scenes of nature, which await him as he advances further to the north. The mountains become more lofty and more steep, the valleys deeper; massive rocks, on the summits or in the vale, more frequently interrupt the verdant slopes and plains; the streams flow with a more rapid course. Sometimes the traveller finds himself on elevated spots which command a sublime prospect of manifold insulated mountain tops and profound valleys; sometimes, he is enclosed between steep and threatening walls of rock. All objects assume more and more the features of a romantic Alpine country."

In a north-easterly direction along the ridge of hills connecting the Sierra de Capivary with the Sierra de Viruna, the country is described by Dr. Von Spix as poetically rural, but lonely and desolate. Extensive forests are still seen extending along the declivities and valleys. Near the Morro de Bom Fim, the last of these high mountains, the traveller crosses the Rio das Mortes, winding through a broad, swampy valley, and bearing its dark waters to the Rio Grande, which it joins about seventy miles west of San João d'el Rey. It was in this valley that two parties of Paulistas, quarrelling about gold, engaged in a sanguinary contest, from which the river has derived its name.

Of the natural edible products, there are various and delicious fruits, as oranges, mangoes, grapes, &c.

The *cocoa tree* is one of the most generally useful trees in Brazil. Mr. Kidder says, "The cocoa is truly the staple vegetable, and although many of the uses to which it may be applied are unknown or unpractised here, yet it literally

* Von Spix.

furnishes the people with meat, drink, fuel, houses, and commerce. Besides the sale of the raw nut, the pulp is converted into oil, the shell into dippers, and the fibrous husk into cordage ; while all know the value of its water as a beverage. At the same time the leaf furnishes materials for the construction of an entire habitation. It is wrought into baskets, it makes fences, and when dried may be used for writing, while its ashes yield potash. The terminal bud is a delicate article of food ; the juice of the flower and stem contains sugar, and may be fermented into wine, or distilled into spirits ; and, finally, the case of the trunk or stem is converted into drums, or used in the construction of buildings, while the lower extremity is so hard as to take a beautiful polish, after which it resembles agate."

Those who mount the trees to pluck the fruit, carry a *fonce*, or sharp bill-hook, with a short handle, to cut the stems. It is twisted into the girdle, and the bearer, if expert, places simply his hands and feet against the side of the tree and *walks up*, if not with the agility of a monkey, certainly with incomparable self-composure.

The *cashew* tree, or *cajueiro*, is abundant on several parts of the coast and islands. Southey calls it the finest of the American trees. "How beautiful," he says, "it is to behold in its pomp, either when it is re-clothing itself, in July and August, with the brightest verdure of its leaves, or when, during our northern autumn, it is covered with white and rosy-tinged blossoms ; or, finally, in the three following months, when it is enriched with its ruby and golden fruits, which hang amid its leaves like pendent jewels ! Its leaves have an aromatic odour, its flowers are exquisitely fragrant, its shade deep and delightful. A gum exudes from its trunk nothing inferior to that of Senegal, and in such abundance as to have the appearance of rain-drops upon the tree. This gum was used by the Indians as a medicine, being pounded and dissolved in water. This admirable tree is not common in the interior, but towards the coast whole tracts of country, which would else be barren, are covered with it ; and the more sandy the soil, and the drier the season, the more it seems to flourish. The possession of a spot where it grew abundantly, used to be of such importance as often to cause war among the natives. The fruit somewhat resembles a pear in shape, but is longer. It is spongy and full of a delicious juice ; in any form it is excellent, whether in its natural state or preserved. What a blessing would this tree be to the deserts of Arabia and Africa."

On some of the fazendas are cultivated, promiscuously, sugar-cane, mandioca, cotton, rice, and coffee. Around the farm-house, which is the centre, are usually situated out-houses for negroes, store-houses for the staple vegetables, and fixtures for reducing them to a marketable form.

The *engenho de cachassa* is an establishment where the juices of the sugar-cane is expressed for distillation. On most of the sugar estates there are distil-

leries, which make the molasses that is separated from the sugar into the rum, called by the Portuguese *cachassa*. The apparatus for grinding the cane is generally rude and clumsy.

The *Jatropha manihot* L., or *mandioca*, being the principal farinaceous production of Brazil, is deserving of particular notice. Its subsistence combines deadly poison with highly nutritious food. It is indigenous to Brazil, and was known to the Indians long before the discovery of the country. Southey remarks, "If Ceres deserved a place in the mythology of Greece, far more might the deification of that person have been expected who instructed his fellows in the use of mandioc."

The *farinha de mandioca*, or mandioc flour, was prepared by the slaves, scraping it into a fine pulp with oyster shells, or with an instrument made of small sharp stones set in a piece of bark, so as to form a kind of rasp. The pulp was then rubbed or ground with a stone, the juice carefully expressed, or finally evaporated by heat. The work of thus preparing it was considered pernicious to health, and the slaves employed mixed, as a corrective, the flowers of the *nhambi* and the root of the *annato* in their food. The natives prepare it as above, and in various other ways.

The Portuguese invented mills for preparing the mandioc flour. They generally pressed it in cellars, and places where it was least likely to occasion accidental injury. It has been asserted that a white insect was generated by the juice; so venomous, that the native women sometimes poisoned their husbands, and slaves their masters, by mixing it in their food. A poultice of mandioc, with its own juice, was considered a cure for *imposthumes*. Mr. Kidder says it was administered for worms, and was applied to old wounds to eat away the diseased flesh. For some poisons, also, and for the bite of certain snakes, it was esteemed a sovereign antidote. The simple juice was used for cleaning iron. The poisonous quality is confined to the root; for the leaves of the plant are eaten, and even the juice might be made innocent by boiling, and be fermented into vinegar, or inspissated till it became sweet enough to serve for syrup.

The root, after being removed from the soil, cannot be preserved from corruption for three days; the slightest moisture ruins the flour.

The native mode of cultivating mandioca was by cutting down the trees, letting them lie till they were dry enough to burn, and after the burning of the wood, then planting the mandioca between the stumps.

They ate it as flour, and the mandioc supplied them also with a spirituous drink. They prepared the liquid by slicing the roots, which were then boiled until well softened. The young women then chewed and threw them into a vessel, which was filled with water; the liquid and pulp were then boiled, and afterwards poured into large earthen jars, half buried in the floor of the dwelling.

The jars were closely stopped, and in two or three days fermentation commenced. When the banquetting day arrived, the women kindled fires around the jars, the liquid when heated, was served round in gourds: the men dancing and singing as they received and emptied, at one draught, the contents of a gourd. They ate nothing at these orgies, but continued drinking until all the liquor in one house was exhausted, and then resorted to the next, till they had drank all the liquid in the village. These orgies were held about once a month. De Lery says he witnessed one which lasted three days and three nights.

Mandioca is difficult of cultivation, and requires from twelve to eighteen months to ripen. As its roots have a great tendency to spread, it is planted in large hills, to counteract its spreading, and to render the soil more dry and congenial to its growth. The roots, when dug up, are of a fibrous texture. The best process of preparation is first to boil them, then to separate the rind, and then to rasp the roots on a circular grater turned by water-power or other power. The raspings should then be put into sacks, and then placed, several together, under a screw-press to squeeze out the poisonous liquid. The dry mass is then pounded fine in mortars, and transferred to ovens, or concave plates, heated underneath. The flour is then rapidly stirred about until quite dry. The farinha, when well made, is white and granular. It is eaten at all Brazilian tables, and formed into a great variety of nutritious dishes. The residuum deposited by the juice of mandioca, after standing a short time, is dried, and then constitutes tapioca.

The well-known colouring matter, *annato*, is a product of the tree known to botanists as the *bixa orellana*. This tree is of moderate size, with red and white flowers. Its colouring matter was used by the aborigines to paint their persons.

Annato is the oily pulp of the seed, rubbed off and then left to ferment. It is afterwards rolled into cakes, weighing from two to three pounds, to be exported. *Cacao* is a common production of Para and other parts. It is made from the seeds of the *theobroma cacao*.

The fruit called the Brazil-nut is only produced in the northern parts of the empire. It grows in great abundance spontaneously in the forests of the Amazon. The Portuguese call it "*Castanha do Maranhão*." It grows upon the lofty branches of a majestic tree, the *bertholletia excelsa*.

The first attempts to cultivate Chinese tea, was about 1819, when the Count of Linhares, prime minister of Portugal, brought from the interior of China, several hundred immigrants who were acquainted with the whole process of growing and preparing the tea-plant.

These colonists became discontented, and have nearly disappeared. From whatever cause, whether from the soil or climate of Brazil, or to imperfect preparation of the tea-leaf, when grown, the Chinese plant did not yield good tea.

The tea-plant is now grown chiefly as a pretty shrub ; and seeds or cuttings are gratuitously given at the *imperial* botanical garden to those who apply for them.

The Paulistas and others have since attempted the cultivation of the tea-plant, and have succeeded to some extent. We have had several samples of their growth, but none equalled good Chinese tea. The cost of production is said to be greater than the price at which better tea can be imported from Canton. The growers are, however, sanguine in the belief that, ultimately, they can produce the tea, in price and in quality, so as to compete with China in foreign markets.

Coritiba, on the route to Rio Grande do Sul, is an aboriginal name, signifying many pines, and indicating the prevalence of the pine tree throughout the whole region. The fruit trees of Europe also flourish there in great perfection.

Coritiba, is the principal town within the extensive district to which it gives name, and which is said to abound in mines of gold and diamonds. The district has also many estates appropriated to the rearing of cattle, horses and mules, and the cultivation of the products of the earth. It is, however, more renowned for another product, the tea-herb of *Paraguay*, or *Matte*, the *cassine gongonha* (Martius), or the herb of Paraguay. This, when pulverised, is called *matte*, and is much used in the Spanish republics of South America. Raw hide cases of it are exposed for sale in nearly every town of Brazil. The infusion is prepared in a bowl. A small quantity of the leaf, mixed with sugar, is suffered to stand a short time in cold water ; boiling water being added, it is immediately ready for use. As the particles of leaf swim in the tea, it is sipped through a tube, with a fine globular strainer at the end, immersed in the decoction. The natives, who labour all day, are said to be immediately refreshed by this tea. In Chile, Peru, &c., it is a constant beverage. It grows spontaneously in the districts of Coritiba and Parangua.

The natural growth of the soil of Brazil, it will be observed, is exceedingly varied. The agricultural products will be found further noticed in the brief descriptive sketches of the respective provinces of the empire, and those which are most important in commerce will appear stated in the Tables of Exports.

Wild Animals—Live Stock.—European animals have succeeded. There are great herds of cattle and horses in the countries south of 25 deg. latitude, where they wander about nearly in a wild state. In other parts they are reared, but are less abundant ; on the plains mules and asses are preferred to horses. Pigs are abundant only in some parts of the plains. Sheep are not numerous, and their wool is of inferior quality. The wild animals common to South America are found in Brazil, with the exception of llamas and guanacoes, and of the puma and spectacled bear. Among the rapacious animals are the hyena, tiger-cat, the ferocious *saratu*, the jaguar, a very fierce beast, ounces, and wild hogs. The tapir is large, timid, and feeds like a horse, but is amphibious, and will

remain a long time at the bottom of rivers. The flesh is said to resemble that of the ox. The wild animals killed for food are the tapir, three species of porcupine, five species of deer, several species of monkeys, the Brazilian hare, five species of armadillo, alpacas, the agoutis, and the wild boar. There are several kinds of wild bees.

Birds.—The feathered tribes of Brazil are of the most richly varied colours. Emus, or Brazilian ostriches are numerous on the table-land, as well as nearly all the other birds of South America, especially toucans, vultures, tanagras, parrots, the Balearic crane, humming-birds, and several species of pigeons.

Fish.—Whales appear along the coast as far north as 12 deg. south latitude, and the *Physeter macrocephalus* (Linn.) is found south of 30 deg. south latitude. The whale fishery is carried on at different points of the shore, by the inhabitants, and on the Brazil bank by the Americans. The *garopa* is met with north of 15 deg. south latitude, and great quantities are annually caught and exported. Several kinds of fish are caught in the Amazon, and dried for exportation. The huge manati is still common in that river, and in some of its tributaries: several species of turtle are also found in the Amazon, and the mantega or fat substance extracted from the eggs of the turtle, is an important article of commerce. The boa constrictor, or great *cobras*, said to be sometimes thirty feet long and as thick as a man's body, will gorge a deer, and, it is even said, an ox. The corral snake, the janacara, &c., are among the other reptiles, which are numerous. Musquitoes, and various insects, are, in the low districts, very annoying.

The *vacca marina*, (*Peixe boi*), or fish ox or *manati*, never leaves the water, and it feeds principally upon a water plant (*cana brava*) that grows or floats on the borders of the rivers. It raises its head above the water to respire, as well as to feed upon this plant. It has two small fins situated near its head. The udders of the female are under the fins. The manati is considered the largest fish or animal inhabiting fresh-water, being sometimes seventeen feet long and two or three feet thick above the middle; its eyes are very small, and the opening of its ears are scarcely perceptible. Its skin is thick, and so hard as to be nearly proof against a musket ball. The Indians made shields of it in war. Its fat and flesh were always considered delicious by the natives. They smoked or dried it in place of beef.

The *turtle egg butter* of the Amazon (*manteiga da tartaruga*) is a substance peculiar to Central and South America. At certain seasons of the year the turtles appear by thousands on the banks of the rivers, in order to deposit their eggs upon the sand. The noise of their shells striking against each other while rushing inwards, is said to be sometimes heard at a great distance. Their next march begins at dusk, and ends with the break of morn, when they return to the water. They continue nestling in this manner until each turtle has deposited from sixty to one hundred and thirty or forty eggs.

During the day-time the inhabitants collect these eggs, and lay them up in

heaps. These piles are often twenty feet in diameter, and of a corresponding height. While fresh they are thrown into wooden canoes, or other large vessels, and broken with sticks, and pressed by treading with the feet. Water is then poured on, and the vessels are exposed open to the sun. The heat brings the oily matter to the surface, when it is skimmed off with cuyas and shells. The oil is then exposed to a moderate heat until ready for use. When purified it has the appearance of melted butter. It retains a fishy taste, but the natives are accustomed to its use, and like it as well as Europeans do butter. It is carried to market in earthen jars. In former times it was estimated that nearly 250,000,000 of turtles' eggs were annually used in making mantega.

The Brazilian emu, or ostrich, is remarkable for strength and swiftness. Mr. Luccock and his party started an emu, and putting their horses to their utmost speed, they gave it chase.

"The bird," he says, "quickly left us far behind, then closed its wings and stalked on in careless security. Though the neighbouring sands are the natural haunt of these birds, they were now numerous on the plains, having been driven hither, I suppose, by dry weather; we had in consequence several chases of the same kind, all of them equally fruitless. On turning the corner of a wood we suddenly came within thirty yards of an emu, followed by about sixty young ones, which were, probably, several collected broods. She marched off with a stately step, carrying her head in a sort of semicircle, and looking at us first with one eye then with the other. We again followed at full gallop; but, as the pursuit continued the distance sensibly increased. The young birds clustered together, fluttered much, and advanced with evident haste; the pace of the old one was dignified and steady; she showed no marks of weakness, fear, or stupidity; on the contrary, while concerned for the safety of her charge, she seemed desirous to save them from unnecessary fatigue.

"I kept one of these birds for some time within a spacious stockado, until it became familiar and occasionally impertinent; and he allowed me to stride over his back, and could just support my weight. Mounted by a boy of twelve years of age, he could run, and was easily guided by turning his head to the direction in which the rider wished him to proceed."

Cattle Grounds.—North of the Gonzales, there extends towards the north, between the Passo dos Negros and the *Lagoa dos Patos*, a broad patch of swampy land, "the accumulated sediment of ages." In these fens are several large farming establishments; that of Pellotas, which stands about six or seven miles above the mouth of the river of that name, is said to occupy ten square leagues, a moderate extent for a grazing farm in Rio Grande. Towards the west the country assumes a different aspect. An extensive tract, famous for its fine cattle, is comprehended under the name *Charqueados*, derived from the "*charqued*" beef which is prepared in this district for exportation.

Mr. Luccock says, "that in one year an individual, Joze Antonio dos Anjos slaughtered 54,000 head of cattle, and charqued the flesh. The piles of bones which lay in his premises far surpassed my utmost conceptions; and there were thousands of *urubues*, the vulture of South America, flying round and feeding on the offal. During the slaughtering season it is not uncommon for large packs of dogs to make their appearance and assist the vultures in picking the bones; and it is said that the ounce will do the same."

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the province of Rio Grande do Sul, was covered with cattle, notwithstanding the devastation made among the herds by the Indians and the ounce. The conquerors of the province then commenced a system of wanton destruction, — directed principally against the calves. One of which seldom sufficed for the dinner of two persons. If one wished for a tongue, rather than divide it, they would slaughter another calf; some would kill an animal in the morning in order to breakfast off broiled kidneys, and not to be incommoded by carrying home any part of the meat, would kill another for dinner. At length the Spanish and the Portuguese governors interfered; and an edict was passed by the governor of Monte Video, about the year 1650, prohibiting the slaughter of calves and of all oxen under five years old. This partly checked the destruction; but in some parts, owing to the warfare carried on near the banks of the Plata, the charqued beef has at times been very scarce.

In the beginning of the present century, there were in Rio Grande, 539 proprietors of land, consisting of *fazendeiros*, farmers, and *lavradores*, husbandmen. The latter, who bred only what was necessary for their own consumption, possessed generally about two square leagues of land: the former farmed from eight to ten leagues; and some of these fazendas states were reported to extend to a hundred square leagues, or nearly 600,000 acres.

To each three square leagues are allotted 4000 or 5000 head of cattle, six men and a hundred horses.* This proportion of horses is large; but they cost nothing in keeping, and are turned out on the plains; on these estates no one, not even a slave, travels any distance on foot. About a hundred cows were allowed for the supply of milk, butter, cheese, and veal, to a fazenda of average size. Hogs are usually little taken care of; they root up the earth, devour reptiles, and subsist, also, on the waste parts of slaughtered cattle. The sheep are few and ill-made, with short, ordinary wool. The wool is used partly on the skins, as saddle covers, &c., or stuffing mattresses, &c.

"The breed of sheep," Mr. Henderson considered, "would, if attended to, much exceed that of cattle, in consequence of their generally producing two at a

* In a fazenda of three leagues, it is computed, Mr. Henderson says, that 1000 young cattle, male and female, are branded, or marked, annually; the number sent off or killed, may be judged of from this calculation.

birth; they, however, are not numerous, few farmers possessing 1000 head, and the major part not any." The *fazendeiros* breed also droves of horses and mules.

From the Rio Ypanema, grassy campos extend southward with little interruption to Coritiba, and into the capitania of Rio Grande, in the whole of which extensive tract the same system of farming is still followed, that is described by Dr. Von Spix as follows:—

"Every landholder possesses, according to the extent of his farm, from several hundred to 2000, nay, even 40,000 head of cattle. They generally reckon from 3000 to 4000 head on an estate which has two square miles of good pasture. All these roam at liberty in a wild state; but, every farmer keeps besides, as many tame draught oxen and cows as he requires for the purposes of agriculture, and for milk, which is partly made into cheese. The attendance on the wild cattle gives but very little trouble; all that is required is, to brand them with the mark of the owner, and to catch the animals intended to be slaughtered. From four to six servants, under the direction of a chief cowherd, perform all these services; they prevent the herds from straying beyond the boundaries, and defend them from the attacks of the ounces, wolves, and wild dogs. These people are almost always on horseback, as their office compels them to ride twenty miles or more in a day. Every year, the whole herd is collected at different times in a place in a high situation, and sometimes fenced in. On this occasion, the mark of the owner is branded on the hind quarter of the beasts one year old, of which they reckon 1000 annually for a herd of 5000 or 6000. Those of four years old and more are selected for slaughter. The catching of these, frequently a troublesome and dangerous employment, is executed here, as in the *pampas* of Buenos Ayres, by means of long leathern nooses, lassoes, which the farmers' servants manage with considerable dexterity.* The tame cattle are kept in the vicinity of the fazenda, run free in the meadows during the day, and are only shut up in the enclosures during the night. The flesh of the tame cattle is preferred to that of the wild, because, from their undisturbed and more quiet way of life, they grow fat sooner, and with less fodder. The pasture being so good, their milk is excellent; but a cow gives only a third part of the quantity that good milch cows give in Europe. The hide is always the most valuable part of the cattle: it is stripped off, stretched upon the ground by means of short pegs, a little salted, and dried in the sun. The flesh, cut into thin strips, rubbed with

* Mr. Mawe, describing this process as practised by the peons of Monte Video, says, "The dexterous mode in which the peons catch their cattle, by throwing a noose over them, has been frequently detailed, but certainly no description can do full justice to their agility. They throw with equal precision and effect, whether at full gallop or at rest. Their method of catching horses, by means of balls attached to leather thongs, is similar, but more unerring."—*Travels in Brazil*, p. 29.

salt, and dried in the air, is an important article of exportation from the harbours of San Paulo and Rio Grande do Sul, to the cities in the north ; particularly to Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, Pernambuco, and Maranhão, where, under the names of *Carne seca do Sertão*, *Passoca*, or *Carne charquada*, it constitutes an essential part of the subsistence of all the Brazilians, but especially of the negro slaves.

“ Besides the breeding of oxen, that of horses and mules likewise occupies several farmers in the capitania of San Paulo, but is carried on upon a far more extensive scale in Rio Grande do Sul. The horses of San Paulo are of a middling size, of slender make, and, if they are attended with care, acquire an elegant carriage, and become excellent racers. In general, twenty or thirty of those wild animals herd together, and hardly ever separate. The animals, when taken (by means of the long nooses), sometimes trembling with fear, sometimes full of impetuous fury, endeavour, by the strongest contortions and the most desperate leaps, to defend themselves against the riders. When the latter have succeeded in holding an animal fast by the ears and lips with a pair of tongs, in putting a halter over his head, and a sheep-skin by way of saddle on his back, one of the servants mounts him, and endeavours to overcome the obstinacy of the horse by means of the whip. After many violent motions and leaps, it is at length so far subdued, that it runs furiously away with its rider, and after a long course, it in some degree yields to the bridle. After being thus humbled, it stands still with its head hanging down, on which all the others separate from it. The next day, the same exercise is repeated ; and in a few days more, the horse is broken and fit for riding. The common Paulistas, and particularly the *piãos* (the herdsman's servants), make use of a very small flat, wooden saddle, which is often not even covered with leather. Their stirrups are so small that they will only admit the great toe: the spurs are fastened to the naked heel. The dress of the *pião* consists of a short jacket, narrow trousers, and a flat round hat, fastened with a strap, altogether of brown leather, made of deer or capivara hides, and is very well adapted to protect him against the thorny hedges through which he must force his way, when pursuing wild animals.

“ The wild horses are most frequently of a brown colour, very rarely white or piebald, and by their disproportionably short, thick heads and small stature, generally betray their extra-European breed. The mules are here more handsomely made animals than the horses: they are commonly equal in size to the European horse: their colours are black, brown, fallow, or striped like a zebra. They are preferable to the horses, especially on long journeys, because they can better endure hunger and thirst, and carry with greater security heavier burdens.”

The *Guachos* of Buenos Ayres are not more expert on horseback, and in the use of the lasso, than are these men, whose occupation, from childhood, is the care and culture of the herds of cattle, which roam their vast campinas or prairies.

It has been estimated that, in the province of Rio Grande do Sul, not mentioning parts of Santa Catharina and San Paulo, which are devoted to the same purposes, about 400,000 cattle have been slaughtered annually, for their hides and flesh, while as many more are driven northward for home consumption. Most of the *carne secca*, or jerked beef, in common use throughout Brazil, is prepared here. Stacks of this meat, like cords of wood, are piled up in the provision houses of Rio de Janeiro.

The Brazilians in preparing pork, skin off all the fat taking the lean meat for immediate use, and throwing the bones away. The fat part is rolled up and pressed into a basket, with a little salt sprinkled over and around it, it is then called *toucinho*, and carried great distances to market.

CHAPTER IV.

MINERALS OF BRAZIL.

THE mineralogy of Brazil, can only as yet have been very imperfectly explored. Gold and precious stones have been the temptations, seized upon with the most rapacious avidity, though not always with success. The gold mines of Jarugua, in San Paulo, were the first discovered in Brazil. They are distant a few leagues from the city of San Paulo, which owes its origin to the mineral districts. They were so productive in the beginning of the seventeenth century, as to impart to the district the name of the Brazilian Peru. They were afterwards abandoned, but worked in about the year 1807, and Mr. Kidder says, they now (1844), cease to be regularly wrought, and have given place to the gold of Minas Geraes.

Gold occurs on both sides of the Sierra dos Vertentes, and is found in almost all the rivers which extend from that range. There are also gold mines in the vicinity of Villa Rica, and at Congo Soco, near the Villa de Sabara, in Minas Geraes. Little silver has been found, but there are traces of copper, tin, and quicksilver. Iron is abundant, and it has lately been smelted. Diamonds occur in the deposits of several rivers, but it is not lawful to collect them, except on account of the government in the authorised diamond districts, especially that which lies east of the Rio San Francisco, under 8 deg. south latitude, those of the Rio Pardo Mandongà, and that of the river Jequitinhonha, an affluent of the Rio del Belmonte, which traverses the district. The great diamond found in the River Abaeté, is considered the largest known, and weighed 138½ carats. Topazes

are found in several places. Salt is abundant, and the grounds much resorted to by the cattle and wild animals. There is a salt region on both sides of the Rio de San Francisco, which has an average width of from eighty to 100 miles; and another at the western extremity of the Sierra dos Vertentes, in the Sierra de Agua-pehy. In both salt is prepared in large quantities.

In 1718, the gold mines of Matto Grosso were discovered, and in 1836, a route was opened into those of Goyas. In 1746, a route was opened between Cuyaba, in Matto Grosso and Para by the tributaries of the Amazon, which rendered it less necessary to ascend by the broken, rocky navigation of the Tiete.

The earth washed for gold, Dr. Von Spix describes as "a ferruginous sandstone conglomerate;" which agrees with Mr. Mawe's account. "The soil," he says, "is red and remarkably ferruginous. The gold lies, for the most part in a stratum of rounded pebbles and gravel, called *cascalhão*, incumbent on the solid rock. In the valleys, where there is water, occur frequent excavations, made by the gold-washers, some of them fifty or 100 feet wide, and eighteen or twenty feet deep. On many of the hills where water can be collected for washing, particles of gold are found in the soil, scarcely deeper than the roots of the grass."

The mode of obtaining the gold, Mr. Mawe thus describes. "Where water of sufficiently high level can be commanded, the ground is cut in steps, each twenty or thirty feet wide, two or three broad, and about one deep. Near the bottom, a trench is cut to the depth of two or three feet. On each step stand six or eight negroes, who, as the water flows gently from above, keep the earth continually in motion with shovels, until the whole is reduced to a liquid mud, and washed below. The particles of gold contained in this earth descend to the trench, where, by reason of their specific gravity, they quickly precipitate. Workmen are continually employed at the trench to remove the stones, and clear away the surface, which operation is much assisted by the current of water which falls into it. After five days' washing, the precipitation in the trench is carried to some convenient stream to undergo a second clearance. For this purpose wooden bowls are provided, of a funnel shape, about two feet at the mouth, and five or six inches deep, called *gamellas*. Each workman, standing in the stream, takes into his bowl five or six pounds of the sediment, which generally consists of heavy matter, such as granular oxide of iron, pyrites, ferruginous quartz, and often more precious stones. They admit certain quantities of water into the bowls, which they move about so dexterously, that the precious metal, separating from the inferior and lighter substances, settles to the bottom and sides of the vessel. They then rinse their bowls in a larger vessel of clean water, leaving the gold in that, and begin again.

"The washing of each bowlful occupies from five to eight or nine minutes. The gold produced is extremely variable in quality, and in the size of its particles.

The operation is superintended by overseers, the result being important. When the whole is finished, the gold is placed upon a brass pan, over a slow fire, to be dried, and at a convenient time is taken to the permutation office, where it is weighed, and a fifth reserved for the government. The remainder is smelted with muriate of mercury, then cast into ingots, assayed, and stamped according to its intrinsic value."

Bars of uncoined gold were formerly common in the circulating medium of Brazil. But at present specie of all kinds, except copper, is scarce, and seldom met with, except at exchange offices.

The gold mines of Villa Rica, in Minas Geraes, are in a sort of schistous clay, resting on granite, gniess, or sandstone, laminated or solid—the gold being scattered in small particles amid the superjacent schist and clay. The town of Villa Rica is situated at the junction of several streams, whose waters have only one outlet, by a narrow chasm cut by their force through the surface down to the more firm component parts.* The extent of a small plain above the town, supposed to have been once a lake, is from thirty to forty acres, and it is connected, by narrow passes, with others of a like size. The mountains surrounding this supposed ancient lake, rise from 700 to 1000 feet above its level; and on the declivity of the most northerly of them the town is built. In the sides of all of them much gold is supposed still to exist, notwithstanding the quantity which has been washed down or gathered from them.

Mr. Mawe says, "Wherever a natural stream trickles down, its bottom is frequently and carefully searched; particularly where the current has met with any check, for there the precious metal is commonly detained. In parts where nature has provided no water, pits are dug and flanked with strong walls, or stockades, through which a stream is turned from a distance. The surplus, running over the edge of the embankment, is generally received into a second pit below; sometimes into a third. At proper seasons, the pits are cleared of the water, the sediment is taken out, and treated as before mentioned. Numerous drifts also have been run horizontally into the softer parts of the mountain, until they entirely

* M. de Humboldt, in his "Geognostical Essay on the Superposition of Rocks," has the following remarks on the quartz-rock formation:—"On the table-land of Minas Geraes, near to Villa Rica (according to the excellent observations of M. d'Eschwege), a micaslate, containing beds of granular limestone, is covered by primitive clay-slate. On this latter rock reposes, in conformable stratification, the chloritous quartz which constitutes the mass of the Peak of Itacolumi, 1000 toises above the level of the sea. This formation of quartz contains alternating beds; 1. of auriferous quartz, white, greenish, or striped, mixed with talc-chlorite; 2. chlorite slate; 3. auriferous quartz mixed with tourmaline; 4. specular iron mixed with auriferous quartz. The beds of chloritous quartz are sometimes 1000 feet thick. The whole of this formation is covered with a ferruginous breccia, extremely auriferous. M. d'Eschwege thinks, that it is to the destruction of the beds we have just named, and which are geognostically connected, that the soil which is worked by means of washing should be attributed, containing gold, platina, palladium, and diamonds (Corrego das Lagens), gold and diamonds (Tejuco), and platina and diamonds (Rio Abaeté). The decomposed chlorite-slate, from which the topaz is procured, belongs to this formation."—See "Humboldt on the Superposition of Rocks," London, 1823. pp. 117—18.

perforate the coating of schist or clay, and reach its solid core, while the water oozing through the mass above, is received into basins, together with the metal which it may convey."

Dr. Von Spix was conducted by M. Von Eschwege, the director-general of the mines of Brazil, to the eastern declivity of the Morro of Villa Rica, which has yielded the greatest abundance of gold. "From the southern hill of the mountain," he says, "we passed through several gardens ornamented with fuchsia, near to the Hospicio de Jerusalem, and by the side of a deep trench to a naked ravine irregularly rent, and full of masses of rock which had fallen down, presenting a picture of wild desolation. How great was our astonishment, when our friend signified to us that this was the rich gold mine of Villa Rica! Sieves and raw ox-hides were placed at certain distances, in trenches full of water, conducted from the summit; the first sieve to stop the coarser sand, and the latter to catch the gold dust in the hair, which stands erect.* Here and there we also saw detached trenches, in which the auriferous mud or sand collects. As soon as the rainy season commences, these simple preparations are put in motion. The former possessors always had their mine worked by several hundred slaves, and derived immense profit from it. At present, however, it seems to be much impoverished, so that but few gold-washers are employed in it, and the work is mostly left to free negroes for a daily payment of a patacca. This manner of obtaining gold from a public mine is called, *minerar a talha aberta*."—*Von Spix*.

When this place was first discovered by the gold-hunters, it is said, that they had nothing more to do, than to pull up the tufts of grass or small plants on the side of the hill, and shake the precious dust from the roots. Mr. Luccock says, "The steep slope of the mountain is covered with a coarse kind of grass or rushes in small clumps or bunches; hence, when rain falls heavily, little rills pass round and between the roots, and whatever of a ponderous nature they hurry downwards, must be detained wherever their rapidity is checked. This happens at every tuft of rushes which stands directly in the little water-course; and hence these roots, I presume, have become rich in metal, and they had at that time been undisturbed for ages. Hence, those who pulled the grass would find the gold, and those who plucked a second crop, must as naturally be disappointed. As these streamlets descended the hill, collecting a greater quantity of water, they acquired more force, and formed for themselves, by tearing away the soil, a course with an irregular bottom, having hollows in the softer parts, which would exist in the form of basins, and the descending metal would be retained in them; hence the formation of these little *caldeiraos* which often suddenly enriched an adventurer. A great quantity of the precious metal has doubtless passed on

* Sometimes woollen cloths are used; and the first English blankets sold by Mr. Luccock at Rio, were employed in this way.

without impediment, and been collected in the lake below, or buried amid the wreck with which it has been filled, and must there remain until better methods of mining are adopted."

The colour of the gold found here, varies from the most beautiful gold-yellow, to a reddish copper-colour, a bright yellow, and even a grey yellow. There is a kind called *ouro branco* (white gold), which Mr. Luccock, however, supposes to be platina; *ouro preto* (black gold), which appears in the form of a dark-coloured dust; and what is called *ouro inficionado* (poisoned gold), which, though pure, is often pale or copper-coloured.

The iron foundry of Ypanema is situated in a beautiful valley at the foot of the wooded mountain of Guarassajava, which contains vast masses of magnetic iron ore. The foundry belongs to government. There are six or eight buildings for smelting and casting iron, besides a large house in which the director resides, and several smaller dwellings occupied by the workmen and their families, among whom are several Germans.

"The works stand near a small stream of water at a considerable distance from the locality of the mineral. At a great labour the ore is transported in its rough state from the mountain upon the backs of mules. The mineral is said to yield ninety per cent of pure metal, which, although of a fine quality, is asserted to be too brittle for economical use. Greenstone, which is found near, is thrown into the furnace in fragments, and renders the iron more ductile. The principal castings are wheels, cylinders, &c., for the *sugar engenhos* of the vicinity.

This is the only iron foundry in the empire. In 1810, the Portuguese government, then directed by the Count de Linhares, prime minister of Portugal, directed the working the iron of Ypanema, and where he sent for a company of Swedish miners to conduct the business. Little was accomplished until the Conde da Palma, who succeeded him, authorised more extensive works to be constructed. Subsequently, during the war of the revolution, little further was done. Dom Pedro I. did not restore the business; but under the regency of Feijó the old works were rescued from ruin, and they were enlarged with the design of entirely supplying Brazil with native iron. Major Bloem, at present the director, was sent to Europe to examine the manufacturing of iron in England. Where and on the continent, he visited sixty of the principal establishments, and returned with drawings and plans for the execution of his designs. He also engaged a large number of German artizans and labourers to carry on the works. On his return, before he had fairly commenced putting his plans into operation, the government funds were not forthcoming. The administration was changed, and the new ministers seemed jealous of the success of a measure originated under their predecessors. The German labourers, like Swiss soldiers, became discon-

tented, from being badly paid, and one after another absconded. Major Bloem however, at last succeeded so far, that in about two months about 8000 dollars' worth of iron was produced.

This iron foundry may, however, be considered a failure, and in a ministerial report for 1843, it was suggested, "*whether*, after thirty-four years of experiment, this whole establishment had not better be abandoned, at least until it could cease to prove a bill of expense to the imperial treasury."

Lead Mines.—These have been discovered at Cuyabara, west of Capão, and near Prula, a red lead ore, and a green chromate, has been here partially mined, and said to resemble those of Siberia.

Topaz Mines.—These are chiefly at *Capao*, or *Chapoam*. They are found in a quarry, where micaceous earth, ferruginous porcelain earth, and quartz seem to prevail, and out of which they are dug in a most obscure way by slaves, tracking for them. The greater portion of those dug up are said to be full of flaws.*

A gold mine has been worked near the same place, the ore or dust being chiefly found in quartz. Gold dust is found in many other parts of Minas Geraes, Matto Grosso, &c.

Diamond District.—The chief places for digging for diamonds are at the river Mandonga, the Rio Pardo, &c. The working for diamonds was seized upon as a monopoly by government, under the Junta Real par a Administraçao das Diamantes.

When visited by Mr. Mawe, he says,—

"Yet, notwithstanding the idleness of the inhabitants, Tejuco may be called flourishing, on account of the circulation of property created by the diamond works. The annual sum paid by government for the hire of negroes, salaries of officers, and various necessities, such as nitre and iron, does not amount to less than 35,000*l.*; and this, added to the demands of the inhabitants of the town and its vicinity, occasions a considerable trade. The shops are stocked with English cottons, baizes, and cloths, and other manufactured goods; also hams, cheese, butter, porter, and other articles of consumption. Mules from Bahia and Rio de Janeiro come loaded with them."

No idea was at first entertained, that the rivulets contained diamonds; they were considered curious bright stones, until a few of them found their way to

* Von Spix says, "The size of the stones is very various: the workmen affirmed that pieces have been found as large as a fist. The natural colour is manifold, sometimes greyish, sometimes bright yellow, and sometimes a mean between this and carnation of different shades, very rarely dark red. The stones which are found in the mala-cacheta are said to be the lightest. The inhabitants understand how to give to the topazes an artificial colour, particularly rose colour, by means of heat. The number of topazes annually found here is very considerable, but not always pure and fit for polishing; a great part of them are of so imperfect a colour and so full of flaws that they are thrown away as useless. The greater part of these topazes is exported from this place to Rio de Janeiro, a smaller portion to Bahia; and in both places so great a quantity has been accumulated within a few years, that the prices there are lower than at the mine itself. Together with the topaz, the euklase is also found here, and has attracted the attention of the Mineiros, since mineralogists have inquired after it. This stone in general is scarce, and is more frequent in the mine of Capâ than that of Lana."

Lisbon, and were given as pebbles to the Dutch minister, to send to Holland; where the lapidaries pronounced those pebbles to be fine diamonds. This was made known to the Dutch consul at Lisbon, who managed to contract for the precious stones. Government afterwards endeavoured to monopolise the diamonds, and made the district of Sierro do Frio its centre of operations.

The number of diamonds sent to Portugal, during the first twenty years, was said to exceed 1000 ounces in weight.

Government was afterwards prevailed on to let the mines to a company, who were under certain stipulations to work with a limited number of negroes, or to pay a certain sum per day for every negro employed. This opened a door to fraud; yet the company continued in possession of the diamond mines until about the year 1772, when government retook possession of them.

From this time, the establishment was always in debt to foreigners, who had advanced money on the security of having all the diamonds which the mines produced. During a period of five years, from 1801 to 1806 inclusive, the expenses were 204,000*l.*; and the diamonds sent to the treasury at Rio de Janeiro, weighed 115,675 carats. The produce of the gold mines in the same period realised 17,300*l.* These years were esteemed singularly productive: for the mines have not in general yielded more than 20,000 carats annually. Extensive smuggling is, however, carried on in diamonds.*

Brazil comprises probably one of, if not, the richest regions of precious metals and gems in the world; but we are not prepared to conclude, that the emperor or the people will be rendered either powerful or prosperous from these mineral resources; no more than Peru or Mexico have been from their resources of gold and silver. The province of Minas Geraes† has, no doubt, become settled and opened in consequence.

In 1825, the Anglo-Brazilian Mining Company purchased the mines of Congo Soco for 70,000*l.* That company has certainly carried great enterprise to, and enriched, the district by an enormous expenditure. Mr. Kidder says, in 1844, its speculations were conducted with profit; but this we have heard denied. The operations of the company extend towards other districts, and the head-quarters were fixed in the town of San Jose, on the bank of the Rio das Montes; a place going to decay, until the establishment of the English company. One-fifth of the minerals exported by this company is exacted as a royalty by the government.

* As the greatest horror is expressed, in all polite companies in Tejuco, at the very mention of the word *grimpeiro* or smuggler, Mr. Mawe expected at first, that he should not see a diamond there except in the treasury. "But a little acquaintance with the town," he says, "soon convinced me that I was a novice; for, on visiting a few friends to whom I had introductions, I found that diamonds were bartered for every thing, and were actually much more current than specie. Even pious indulgences were bought with them; and surely, no one could have suspected that the seller of his holiness's bulls would condescend to taste the forbidden fruits of Tejuco."

† See brief description of Minas Geraes, Mina Novas, Goyaz, and Matto Grosso.

CHAPTER V.

POPULATION OF BRAZIL—SOCIAL CONDITION—EDUCATION—RELIGION—
GOVERNMENT.

THE population of Brazil is divided into free and slave inhabitants.

First.—The free inhabitants consist of, 1. Europeans; 2. White persons born in Brazil, who call themselves Brazilians; 3. Mulattoes, or the mixed caste between whites and blacks; 4. Mamalucoes, the mixed caste between whites and aborigines; 5. Aborigines in a domesticated state, generally called Cabocloes; 6. Indians in a savage state; 7. Free negroes born in Brazil; 8. Manumitted Africans; 9. Mestizoes, or zambos, or between the mixed caste, aborigines and negroes.

Second.—The unfortunate slave population consists of Africans, creole negroes, mulattoes, and mestizoes. In Brazil there is little political division of castes; this has induced intermarriage with the natives. According to the old code, people of colour were not eligible to some offices of government, nor could they become members of the priesthood; but the mixed castes have gradually advanced, and the regulations against them have become almost obsolete.* Marriages between white men and women of colour are not rare, and scarcely observed, unless the woman is of very dark colour.† The mamalucoes reside mostly in the interior, they have more independence of character than the

* "A mulatto enters into holy orders," says Mr. Koster, "or is appointed a magistrate, his papers stating him to be a white man, but his appearance plainly denoting the contrary. In conversing on one occasion with a man of colour, who was in my service, I asked him if a certain capitam-mor was not a mulatto?" He answered, "He was, but is not now." I begged him to explain, when he added, "Can a capitam-mor be a mulatto?"

† Of the ciganoes, or the gipsies of Brazil, Mr. Koster says, "I frequently heard of these people, but never had an opportunity of seeing any of them. Parties of ciganoes were in the habit of appearing formerly once every year at the village of Pasmado and other places in that part of the country; but the late governor of the province was inimical to them, and attempts having been made to apprehend some of them, their visits were discontinued. They are represented as being a people of a brownish cast, with features which resemble those of white persons, and as being tall and handsome. They wander from place to place in parties of men, women, and children, exchanging, buying, and selling horses and gold and silver trinkets. The women travel on horseback, sitting between the panniers of the loaded horses, and the young ones are placed within the panniers among the baggage. The men are excellent horsemen, and although the packhorses may be overburdened, these fellows will only accommodate matters by riding slowly upon their own horses, and never think of dividing the loads more equally; but they preserve themselves and the animals upon which they ride, quite unincumbered. They are said to be unmindful of all religious observances, and never to hear mass or confess their sins. It is likewise said, that they never marry out of their own nation."

mulatto. They are much handsomer than the mulattoes, and the mamaluco women are considered superior in beauty to all others.

The creole negroes, in the northern districts, are brave and hardy, and willing to please the whites; but easily affronted, and the slightest allusion to their colour enrages them. They will sometimes reply: "A negro I am, but always upright." They have their own regiments, as well as the mulattoes, of which every officer and soldier of the former is perfectly black. The uniform is white cloth, turned up with scarlet. On gala days, the superior black officers, in their white uniforms, pay their respects to the government exactly in the same manner as officers of any other caste. Negroes have been excluded from the priesthood, and from the civil offices to which the mulatto is eligible.

Slaves.—The laws respecting slaves are considered by most travellers humane, and their treatment not severe. Aboriginal slavery has been legally abolished; mulattoes and all those of colour are slaves whose mothers are slaves of African origin; for no shade of the colour or blood of the *whites* entitles the child, whose mother is a slave, to freedom. Mr. Koster saw several persons, to all appearance of white origin, held in slavery. The Brazilian slave is taught the religion of his master. The numerous holidays of the Catholic calendar afford the slave thirty-five free days in the year, besides Sundays, to work for himself; and few masters venture to deprive their slaves of these periods. The slave can by law compel his master to manumit him on tendering the sum for which he was purchased, or for which he might be sold. Slaves are also often manumitted at the death of their masters, and persons of large property frequently set a few of them at liberty. A great number of infant slaves are also often declared free at their baptism, either by the sponsors, or in cases where the father is free: the master is obliged to manumit the infant at the baptismal font, on the price of a new-born child, about 5*l.*, being presented to him. Still slavery, with all its mitigation, is liable to horrible cruelty, and it is a bitter condition in any country. The slaves whose condition is the most degraded and miserable, are those employed in the mines, especially the diamond mines.

The Aboriginal Inhabitants consist of numerous tribes, many of whom are still asserted to be cannibals. We consider, however, that the latter charge is very much, if not altogether, an exaggeration. The Tapuyas, or Taperivas, were the most noted of the Brazilian tribes in the northern districts, and had extended themselves for a considerable way along the coast. The Topinambas had their chief settlements in Bahia. The Molopagues and Motayes had established themselves on the river Paraiba. The Botocudoes, or Aymares, were found in Minas Geraes and Porto Seguro: the Tamoyos, in Rio Janeiro; the Coroardoes, in Minas Geraes; the Guaycurues, in Matto Grosso; and the Puries, in Espiritu Santo.—(For further remarks on the aborigines, see Sketch of the Provinces.)

In many parts the old Portuguese costume, often very gaudy, continues to be worn ; but modern European fashions have been adopted in most of the towns. According to the last and best accounts which we possess, and as arranged by Mr. Kidder in his recent work on Brazil, and from the return of the consul at Pernambuco, in 1844, the population of the several provinces was divided as follows : viz.,

ESTIMATED Population of the Empire of Brazil in 1844.

P R O V I N C E S.	Free In- habitants.	Slave Po- pulation.	Whole Po- pulation.	P R O V I N C E S.	Free In- habitants.	Slave Po- pulation.	Whole Po- pulation.
	number.	number.	number.		number.	number.	number.
Rio Grando do Sul.....	..	..	160,000	Brought forward..	..	..	2,763,205
Santa Catharina*.....	53,707	12,511	66,228	Sergipe.....	..	..	120,000
San Paulo	..	..	326,902	Alagoas.....	..	..	120,000
Rio de Janeiro*	196,926	239,557	436,483	Pernambuco*	..	..	600,020
City of Rio de Janeiro...	..	..	180,000	Parahiba.....	..	..	100,000
Minas Geraes.....	..	..	760,000	Rio Grande do Norte...	..	..	40,000
Goyaz	..	..	97,592	Ceara.....	..	..	180,000
Matto Grosso.....	..	..	40,000	Piauhv.....	..	..	60,000
Espirito Santo.....	..	..	40,000	Maranham*.....	105,119	111,905	217,024
Bahia	..	..	650,000	Para*	..	..	250,000
Carried forward....	..	..	2,763,205	Total.....	..	..	4,450,249

* Official statements. It is not considered by the consul that the slave population is included in the estimate for Pernambuco : and probably not fully in the other estimates which are left blank.

Nobility.—There are in Brazil eighty-eight titles of nobility, to wit: twenty marquises; twenty-nine viscounts; seven counts ; and thirty-two barons. Titles of nobility are not hereditary. Sometimes the emperor concedes to a son the title of his father, when his services rendered to the country are considered of sufficient importance to merit such a favour.

Mr. Kidder dwells upon the want of an adequate population in Brazil, which is apparent, from the above statement. His remarks with respect to Irish emigration to that country are striking. He observes—

“ That one would naturally suppose that the Catholic Irish would prefer emigrating to a Catholic country, rather than to a land settled by Protestant pilgrims. Facts do not corroborate this supposition, but on the contrary, they indicate that the Catholic emigrant finds more toleration among Protestants, than he can even in a country professing his own faith. Various schemes, both private and public, have been set on foot to encourage emigration to Brazil, but they will all prove abortive until the principles of perfect toleration prevail in the country. I am aware that the constitution nominally tolerates all religions, and that very liberal feelings are cherished by enlightened and well-educated Brazilians generally. Nevertheless, the lower classes of the people, particularly the Portuguese and their immediate descendants, have a great amount of national prejudice and inherent bigotry to conquer before the position of foreign settlers among them would be at all pleasant.

“ Again, there seems to have been a preference hitherto given to the plan of settling foreigners in distinct communities, and not of encouraging them to intermingle with the inhabitants. That this plan is defective is manifest, from the circumstance that few or none of these colonies have prospered. Besides, nothing is more evidently lacking in all parts of Brazil than a sufficient number of practical, industrious mechanics. An accession to this class of inhabitants from almost any nation, would greatly elevate the condition of internal improvements, and advance the common interests of the country. The day is infinitely to be desired when Brazil shall be able to dispense with special exemptions, and what is worse, lotteries, as means of promoting the common arts of life.”

Education.—The instruction of youth has been lamentably neglected in Brazil.

Lately the French system has been introduced, in all its grades, from the primary schools to the law universities. Mr. Kidder observes—

“That a great degree of improvement upon the former state of things is already manifest, but at the same time the work of educational reform has only commenced. The government has adopted a liberal policy on this subject, but unhappily its measures are not in all respects the most judicious. To instance a single point, the schools are supported by direct annual appropriations from the funds of the several provinces, save those which fall under the supervision of the general government; to wit, the law universities and the schools of the capital. Hence there is a liability to fluctuation in the amounts appropriated. While at the same time, the people being constrained to bear the burden in the shape of an involuntary tax, have none of their sympathies enlisted in favour of the schools, and too often neglect to avail themselves of their advantages when established. In no instance is there a public fund to meet the expenses of education. How easy it would be, even now, to appropriate lands for this object, which, as they become settled and increased in value, would form a perpetual and ever enlarging source of income, sacredly devoted to the single purpose of education.

“It cannot be out of place to suggest to the Brazilians the very efficient system now in successful operation in the United States, as one well adapted to their circumstances, and capable of being made to promote their interests, beyond the possibility of calculation. In all the provinces it is complained that there is a great lack of competent teachers. This deficiency has every prospect of continuing until more liberal salaries are paid for their services, even though the normal schools should be more successful than they have hitherto been. Those young men who become qualified for the important task of instruction, will turn their attention to more lucrative employments.

“Another serious obstacle to the progress of education in Brazil, is the almost universal deficiency of suitable school books. Throughout some portions of the interior, children are taught to read from manuscripts. Printed matter is very rare, and generally very indifferent. A newspaper or a book that finds its way to the school, virtually becomes public property, and is passed from hand to hand as an acquisition from which all, by the common laws of humanity, are entitled to expect some benefit.

“In addition to what has already been mentioned, it is to be feared that education in Brazil meets with the most serious embarrassments in the spirit and habits of large portions of the people. They have not been trained up to appreciate the importance of mental cultivation. Their tastes have been formed after the model of other times. Their highest ambition of intellectual enjoyment is associated with the dull excitements of the festas. What is more degrading still, they are many of them under spiritual subjection to men who are jealous of improvement, and who resist efforts in its behalf as dreadful innovations.”

A priest residing in one of the largest cities of the empire, exercising his functions beneath the walls of one of the universities, was heard to say, “*Nao gosto de livros; gosto mais de jogar.*”—“I have no relish for books; I like gaming better.” A Brazilian statesman has said in the imperial legislature—

“As it respects the civilisation of the Brazilian people, properly speaking, almost nothing, unfortunately, has been done. A narrow strip on the coast is that which alone enjoys the benefits of civilisation, while in the interior our people are still to a great degree enveloped in the greatest barbarism. We have been unable to do any thing, and nothing can be accomplished without the aid of a moral and intelligent clergy.”

The cause of education in Brazil is not however altogether hopeless; there are schools, and the press is at work. Mr. Kidder observes—

“The history of Brazilian literature is brief; yet under the circumstances in which it has sprung up, that literature must be considered creditable. Of all that has been written in the Portuguese language within the last hundred years, Brazil has produced

her full proportion of what is meritorious. The names of Caldas and Magalhaens, in the department of poetry; Moraes in philology; and the Andradas in science and philosophy. Within the last few years there has been a decided and promising movement at the capital in behalf of literature and the diffusion of useful knowledge. Several institutions have sprung up which, it is hoped, will exert a salutary and an extensive influence.

"It must, perhaps, be considered as a misfortune to Brazil in a literary point of view, that her language is the Portuguese. A prejudice against that language prevails extensively among foreign nations. Although that prejudice is in a great degree unjust, yet it will not soon be overcome. Hitherto the meagerness of Portuguese literature, if it has not originated the sentiment alluded to, has at least strengthened it."

Brazilians are, in general, a temperate people. Although the use of wine is common among them, wherever it can be procured—and although cachassa, one of the worst species of alcoholic drinks, is almost as common as water—yet public drunkenness is rarely witnessed, unless it be among foreign sailors who visit the ports.

Religion.—On few subjects do Brazilian writers, of all classes, express themselves with greater unanimity of opinion than respecting the state of religion in the country. People and ecclesiastics, officers of state, men of business, and politicians, all agree in representing the condition and prospects of religion as unsatisfactory.

Monasticism is on the decline—the number of secular priests is diminishing—the churches are falling into ruin, and the spirit and principles of infidelity are already disseminated far and wide! All this in a country peopled by the descendants of the inquisitors, and in which, from the period of its discovery, Roman Catholicism has held an undisputed predominance.—*Kidder.*

The following statements appear in the report of the minister of justice and ecclesiastical affairs, addressed to the imperial legislature of 1843:

"The state of retrogression into which our clergy are falling is notorious. The necessity of adopting measures to remedy such an evil is also evident. On the 9th of September, 1842, the government addressed inquiries on this subject to the bishops and capitular vicars. Although complete answers have not been received from all of them, yet the following particulars are certified.

"The lack of priests who will dedicate themselves to the cure of souls, or who even offer themselves as candidates, is surprising. In the province of Pará there are parishes which, for twelve years and upwards, have had no pastor. The district of the River Negro, containing some fourteen settlements, has but one priest; while that of the River Solimoens is in similar circumstances. In the three comarcas of Belem, the Upper and the Lower Amazon, there are thirty-six vacant parishes. In Maranhão twenty-five churches have, at different times, been advertised as open for applications, without securing the offer of a single candidate.

"The Bishop of San Paulo affirms the same thing respecting vacant churches in his diocese, and it is no uncommon experience elsewhere. In the diocese of Cuyabá, not a single church is provided with a settled curate, and those priests who officiate as stated supplies, treat the bishop's efforts to instruct and improve them with great indifference.

"In the bishopric of Rio de Janeiro, most of the churches are supplied with pastors, but a great number of them only temporarily. This diocese embraces four provinces, but during nine years past not more than five or six priests have been ordained per year.

"It may be observed, that the numerical ratio of those priests who die, or become incompetent through age and infirmity, is two to one of those who receive ordination. Even among those who are ordained, few devote themselves to the pastoral work. They either turn their attention to secular pursuits, as a means of securing greater conveniences, emoluments, and *respect*, or they look out for chaplaincies, and other situations, which offer equal or superior inducements, without subjecting them to the *literary tests*, the trouble and the expense necessary to secure an ecclesiastical benefice.

"This is not the place to investigate the causes of such a state of things, but certain it is, that no persons of standing devote their sons to the priesthood. Most of those who seek the sacred office are indigent persons who, by their poverty, are often prevented from pursuing the requisite studies. Without doubt a principal reason why so few devote themselves to ecclesiastical pursuits, is to be found in the small income allowed them. Moreover, the perquisites established as the remuneration of certain clerical services, have resumed the voluntary character which they had in primitive times, and the priest who attempts to coerce his parishioners into the payment of them almost always renders himself odious, and gets little or nothing for his trouble."

By a royal decree of 1752, all the tithes of the Portuguese ultra-marine possessions were secularised, being made payable to the state, while the state became responsible for the support of the clergy.

The arrangement proved profitable and convenient to the crown. The government put the priests on short allowance, and fixed their salaries at fifty, eighty, and one hundred milreis—sums which have been lessening ever since, by a depreciation of the currency. Efforts have been made in Brazil, since the era of independence, to raise the stipend of the clergy, and they have been nominally successful, although the present salary of two hundred milreis (about five pounds sterling) is scarcely more valuable than the sum of one hundred formerly was.

That the scanty emoluments of the clergy have had the effect to lessen the number of incumbents, there can be no doubt; but that they have, on the whole, been productive of injury in any form, is not so evident, since, as the Archbishop of Bahia once remarked, "It is better to have no priests than to have those who are ignorant and immoral."

Ignorance and superstition, no doubt, prevail very generally in most parts of Brazil. The religious belief is, nevertheless, Catholic, although an error has been entertained that the Sebastianists* are still a prevailing sect. This opinion is altogether untrue, although some of that mad sect still exist.

* The Sebastianists are those who believe in the re-appearance of Dom Sebastian, King of Portugal, who made an expedition against the Moors in Africa, in which he was defeated, and though never heard of, was probably killed in that battle. The prime point of faith is, that he will yet come, and that, too, as each believer has it, in his own lifetime. The Portuguese looked for his appearance at Lisbon, but the Brazilians generally think that he will most likely first revisit his own city of Sebastian.

An abominable villain, named Joao Antonio, fixed upon a remote part of the province of Pernambuco, near Piancó, in the Comarca de Flores, for the appearance of the said Dom Sebastian. The place designated was a dense forest, near which were known to be two acroceraunian caverns. This spot the impostor said was an enchanted kingdom, which was about to be disenchanted, whereupon Dom Sebastian would immediately appear at the head of a great army, with glory, and with power to confer wealth and happiness upon all who should anticipate his coming by associating themselves with the said Joao Antonio.

He found followers, who, after awhile, learned that the imaginary kingdom was to be disenchanted by having its soil sprinkled with the blood of one hundred innocent children! In default

CHAPTER VI.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, ARMY, AND NAVY.

IN the year 1825, and on the 11th of December, Dom Pedro swore to a constitutional form of government, by this compact it was provided, that the empire of Brazil is "a political association of all Brazilian citizens: which make a free and independent nation, which admits of no link of union or federation which would oppose its independence:" further that,—

Its territory is divided into provinces, which can be subdivided according as the good of the state shall require it.

Its government is monarchical, hereditary, constitutional, and representative.

The reigning dynasty is declared to be that of Dom Pedro I., emperor and perpetual defender of Brazil.

The Catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion is to continue to be the religion of the empire. Every other religion will be permitted, with the exercise of its domestic or particular faith, in houses for this purpose, but without any exterior form of the temple.

The second section determines who are to be considered Brazilian citizens. It declares that foreigners may be naturalised as citizens of Brazil, without reference to their religion.

Section third determines the powers of the national representatives, and divides the judicial powers into four sections, legislative, controlling, executive, and federal. The emperor and the general assembly are declared the representatives of the nation.

of a sufficient number of children, men and women were to be immolated, but in a few days they would all rise again, and become possessed of the riches of the world. The prophet lacked the courage necessary to carry out his bloody scheme, but delegated power to an accomplice, Joao Ferreira, who assumed the title of "His Holiness," put a wreath of rushes upon his head, and required the proselytes to kiss his toe, on pain of instant death. After other deeds too horrible to describe, he commenced the slaughter of human beings. Each parent was required to bring forward one or two of his children to be offered. In vain did the babes shriek, and beg that they might not be murdered. The unnatural parents would reply, "No, my child, there is no remedy," and forcibly offer them. In the course of two days he had thus slain twenty-one adults and twenty children, when a brother of the prophet, becoming jealous of "His Holiness," thrust him through, and assumed his power. At this juncture some one ran away, and apprised the civil authorities of the dreadful tragedy.

Troops were called out, who hastened to the spot, but the infatuated Sebastianists had been taught not to fear any thing, but that should an attack be made upon them, it would be the signal for the restoration of the kingdom, the resurrection of their dead, and the destruction of their enemies. Wherefore on seeing the troops approach, they rushed upon them, uttering cries of defiance, attacking those who had come to their rescue, and actually killing five, and wounding others, before they could be restrained. Nor did they submit until twenty-nine of their number, including three women, had actually been killed. Women, seeing their husbands dying at their feet, would not attempt to escape, but shouted, "The time is come," &c.

The legislative power is delegated to a general assembly with the sanction of the emperor. The general assembly is composed of two houses, a chamber of deputies, and chamber of senators, or senate.

The attributes of the general assembly are—1. To administer the oath to the emperor, the imperial prince, to the regent or regency.

2. To elect the regency or regent, and to put the limits of its authority thereon.

3. To recognise the imperial prince as successor to the throne in the first session which follows his birth.

4. To name the tutor of the minor emperor in case his father should not have named him in his testament.

5. To clear the doubts which may be entertained relative to the succession to the crown.

6. To institute at the time of the emperor's death, or at the vacancy of the throne, an inquiry into the administration finished, to reform the abuses which may have intruded.

7. To choose a new dynasty in case of the extinction of the regent dynasty.

8. To make laws, to interpret them, to suspend the same, or revoke them.

9. To watch over the maintenance of the constitution, and over the general good of the nation.

10. To fix annually the public expenses, and to make the assessment of the direct taxes.

11. To fix annually, according to the government, the sea and land forces, ordinary and extraordinary.

12. To accord or oppose the entrance of foreign forces, by land or by sea, into the interior of the empire, or into its ports.

13. To authorise the government to contract loans.

14. To establish convenient measures for the payment of the public debt.

15. To rule the administration of the national domains, and to decree the alienation of them.

16. To create or suppress the public offices, and to fix their rules.

17. To determine the weight, the name, the value, the inscription, the type, and the denomination of the moneys, as well as the standard of the weights and measures.

Each chamber to bear the appellation of august and noble representatives of the nations.

Each legislature will last four years, and each annual session four months.

The opening of the imperial sitting will take place every year on the 3rd of May. The closing of the assembly, will also be an imperial assembly, and these two assemblies will take place at a general assembly, with the meeting of both chambers.

The naming of presidents, vice-presidents, and secretaries of both chambers, the verification of the powers of its members, the oath to be taken, and the police of the interior, to be settled under the form of an internal rule.

All questions on a division shall be decided by the majority of the members present.

The members of each chamber shall be held inviolate for their opinions, given in the exercise of their functions.

No senator or deputy can be arrested during his deputation, by any authority except by order of his chamber, or unless being taken in the fact of committing a capital crime.

The senators and deputies may be elected ministers and councillors of state, with the difference that the senators may continue to sit at the senate, and that the deputies will on taking office leave their seat vacant, and must proceed to a new election, in which he may be re-elected, and then assume his functions.

The chamber of deputies is elective and temporary.

To the chamber of deputies belongs the initiation,—1. Of the taxes; 2. Of the recruiting service; 3. Of the choice of a new dynasty in case of the extinction of the old one.

In the chamber of deputies shall be initiated,—1. The examination of the former administration, and the reformation of its defects; 2. The discussion of the propositions made by the executive power.

The chamber of deputies alone is to decide whether there be any cause to accuse the ministers and councillors of state.

The deputies shall receive, during the session, a remuneration to be fixed at the end of the last session of the preceding assembly.

The senate is composed of members for life, and organised by provincial elections.

Each province shall furnish as many senators as deputies, and when the number of deputies is uneven, the number of its senators shall be the half of the inferior even number, so that the province which has eleven deputies shall have five senators.

The province which has but one deputy shall always elect a senator, notwithstanding the above-mentioned rule.

The elections shall be made in the same manner as those of the deputies, but with *treble lists*, from which the emperor shall choose one-third.

The qualifications for a senator must be,—1. Born a Brazilian citizen, and to enjoy one's political rights; 2. Aged forty, at least; 3. Learned, able, and virtuous: those would be preferred who have rendered some service to their country; 4. In the possession of a revenue of 800 milreis yearly, either in property, or through industry, commerce, or employments.

The princes of the imperial house are of right senators, and will take their place in the senate at the age of twenty-five.

The exclusive attributes of the senate are,—

1. To take notice of the individual faults committed by the members of the imperial family, the ministers of state, the councillors of state, the senators, and by the deputies during the period of their legislation.

2. To watch over the responsibility of the ministers and councillors of state.

3. To expedite letters of convocation of the assembly, in case the emperor should not have done it two months after the time fixed by the constitution, the senate shall reunite extraordinarily to this effect.

4. To call together the assembly at the time of the emperor's death for the election of a regent, in case it should so happen that the provisional regent has not accomplished it.

The proposition, opposition, and approbation of projects of law belong to both chambers.

The executive power exercises, through each of the ministers of state, the power of proposal which belongs to him in the formation of the laws. It is only after having been examined by a commission of the Chamber of Deputies, from whence it must have its origin, that it can be converted into a law project.

If the emperor refuse his consent to a law passed by the assembly, he will answer as follows :—"The emperor will meditate on the project, and resolve at the convenient time." To which the chamber shall reply, that it praises his majesty for the interest he takes in the nation, but if two successive legislatures approve of the project, and present it successively in the same terms, it is understood that the emperor will give his sanction.

The fifth chapter of the constitution appointing general councils of the provinces, has been revoked in 1834, and annual representative assemblies elected every two years for each province.

The constitution then at great length defines the powers of the emperor. His person is sacred,—he convokes, prorogues, and dissolves the general assembly,—sanctions or disallows its decrees,—appoints and displaces his ministers,—remits or mitigates punishments,—appoints and suspends magistrates,—proclaims amnesties, appoints bishops, and provides for ecclesiastical benefices,—names and provides for civil employments,—appoints the military and naval commanders and officers,—sends his ambassadors and ministers to foreign courts, and intrusts them with the direction of negotiations,—forms treaties of alliance, offence, defence, subsidy, and commerce,—but submits them afterwards to the general assembly for approval,—declares war and makes peace,—grants letters of naturalisation,—confers titles and honours, civil and military,—publishes the decrees for executing the laws, &c. &c.

The constitution also provides an imperial council of state for life, but

not to exceed ten in number. The organisation of the army and navy is then provided for; judges and courts of law are also organised. The independence of the judges is declared as follows:—The legal power is independent, and will be composed of judges and juries, who will be employed for civil as well as criminal law.

The juries will pronounce on the case, and the judges will apply the law. Judges by right will be perpetual, but this does not mean that they cannot be removed from one place to another, during the time and manner explained by the law. The emperor can suspend them for complaints made against them, after always having heard the judges themselves, and taken the necessary informations, and heard the council of state. The judges cannot lose their places but by a judgment.

All judges of a district, and the officers of justice, are responsible for abuses of power, and for prevarications which they may commit in the exercise of their offices, and may be prosecuted for bribery, corruption, extortion, and embezzlement of public money. The action may be followed up by the plaintiff himself for one year and a day, or any other individual of the municipality, according to the legal order of prosecution.

In the provinces of the empire, tribunals of the second and highest order, for the convenience of the citizens, shall be instituted.

In criminal cases the interrogatives of the witnesses will be published, and all the other acts of the prosecution will be published after judgment.

In civil and penal cases, carried over to the civil tribunal, the parties may name arbitrators.

One cannot commence a prosecution without proving one has used means of reconciliation.

For this purpose there will be judges of peace, who will be elected in the same manner and for the same time as the officers of the chambers.

In the capital of the empire, besides the tribunals which ought to exist as in the other provinces, there will be another tribunal under the denomination of *tribunal of justice*, the members of which will be chosen from the other tribunals, with the title of councillors. This tribunal shall accord or refuse the review of cases, recognise the faults committed by its officers, by those of the other tribunals, by those employed by the diplomatic body, and by the presidents of the provinces, and take cognisance and decide in all contentions of jurisdiction, and the competition of the tribunals of the provinces.

There will be a president named by the emperor in each province, who may change him according to the good of the service.

The National Treasury.—The receipts and expenses of the national finances will be confided to a tribunal under the name of the national treasury, which, in its different divisions established by the law, will have the administration and re-

sponsibility in reciprocal correspondence with the treasuries and authorities of the provinces of the empire.

All direct contributions, with the exception of those which are applied to the sinking of the public debt, will be annually voted by the national assembly, but they will continue to be gathered until their abolition has been pronounced, or until they have been replaced by others.

The minister of finances, after having received from the other ministers the lists relative to the expenditures of their ministry, will present annually to the chamber of deputies, as soon as it assembles, a general balance of the receipts and of the expenditure of the national treasury of the preceding year, as well as the general list of all the public expenses of the future year, and the value of all the contributions and all the public revenues.

CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF CITIZENS.

1. No citizen under any compulsion, except in accordance with the law.
2. No law shall be established without its having some public use.
3. No law will have a *retroactive effect*.
4. Every man may communicate his thoughts by words, writing, and publish them by means of the press, without fearing reproach ; every one will be responsible for the abuses they may commit in the exercise of this right, in the cases and under the form determined on by the law.
5. No person may be persecuted for any matter of religion, if he respect the religion of the state, and offend not the public morals.
6. It is permitted to every one to remain or depart from the empire as he thinks proper, taking with him his goods, in conforming to the rules of the police, and without bearing any malice to anybody.
7. The house of every citizen is an inviolable dwelling ; nobody may enter it at night, whoever he may be, without his consent, except in order to save it from fire or inundation.
8. Nobody can be arrested, save in case of a beginning of an accusation except in the cases foreseen by the law ; twenty-four hours after his imprisonment (if in a city, town, or village, in the neighbourhood of the residence of the judge, and in an interval in proportion to the extent of the territory, and determined by the law for the distant places), the judge will make known to the accused by letter, signed by his own hand, the reason of his imprisonment, the names of the accusers, and those of the witnesses, if there are any.
9. Even in the case of accusation, nobody can be conducted to prison, or be retained therein, if he gives a caution determined by the law ; generally for every crime that is not punished, with more than six months' imprisonment, or expul-

sion from the district in which the accused lives. The accused will remain at liberty.

10. Except when taken in the fact, the imprisonment cannot be executed without a written order from the acting authority; if this order is arbitrary, the judge who issued it, and he that received it, will be punished as determined by the law; in this measure regarding the imprisonment, are not comprehended military commands, necessary for solid bases of justice and equity.

From the present day whipping is abolished, as well as the torture, marking with red-hot iron, and every other barbarous punishment.

Penalties will alone be supported by the criminal; therefore, there cannot exist any confiscation of property, and never will the infamy of the criminal be transmitted to his relations, in whatever degree that may be.

The prisons will be secure, clean, and well attended; there will be different prisons to separate the criminals according to their situation and the nature of their crimes.

22. The right of property is guaranteed in all its fullness, if, after thorough examination, the public good requires that one should make use of the property of a citizen, he will be indemnified for the time to the amount of its value; the law will fix the cases in which this single exception will take place, and it will give the rules for the determination of the indemnity.

23. The public debt is equally guaranteed.

24. No manner of labour, of culture, of industry, or commerce, can be hindered any time that it does not oppose itself to the public morals or security and health of the citizens.

25. The corporations, with their deans, masterships, and secretaryships, are abolished.

26. Inventors will have the property of their discoveries, and of their productions; the law will give them an exclusive temporary privilege, or will recompense them, and will have regard for the loss they may sustain in the publication of the discovery.

27. The secrecy of letters is inviolable. The administration of the posts is rigorously responsible for the infraction of this article.

28. All recompenses conferred for services rendered to the state, either civil or military, are guaranteed, as well as the right acquired from these recompenses, conforming to the laws.

29. Persons in public employment are strictly responsible for abuses and omissions which they may commit in the exercise of their functions, and their negligence in surveying the responsibility of their subalterns.

30. Every citizen can present to the legislative and executive powers his reclamations, complaints, or petitions, and even expose all infractions to the consti-

tution, in reclaiming from the acting authority, the effective responsibility of the criminals.

31. The constitution guarantees public aid to the indigent.

32. Primary instruction is voluntary for all citizens.

33. The establishment of colleges and universities, in which will be instructed the elements of the sciences, arts, and literature, is hereby ordained.

34. The constitutional powers cannot suspend the constitution, in that which concerns individual rights, except in the cases and circumstances specified in the following article.

In speaking of the tribunals of Brazil, Captain Wilkes accuses the judges, magistrates, and other officers, of great partiality and injustice.*

CHAPTER VII.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS, OR PROVINCES OF THE EMPIRE.

UNDER the head of Population, we have given the names and population of the several provinces. To these are added the wilderness regions of GUIANA, north of the Amazon, and of SOLIEMOENS, a vast territory, ill explored, west of the Rio Madera, and south of the Amazon, extending to the limits of Brazil, or to the Rio Yavari. SOLIEMOENS is intersected by large rivers, and this extensive, naturally fertile, but wilderness region is inhabited by numerous aboriginal

* Captain Wilkes says, "The administration of justice is confided to two high tribunals, which are open to the public, and where causes are decided on appeal by a majority of the judges.

"These tribunals are, first, the *relação*, of which there are two branches, one at Rio and the other at Bahia, each composed of eight judges. Second, the supreme tribunal of justice of twelve judges. The inferior courts are those for the trial of civil and criminal cases, an orphans' court, and a court and judge of findings and losings, the last of which is not yet abolished, however obsolete it may have become. Great corruption exists in them all, and no class of people are so unpopular as the judges. It is generally believed, and the belief is acted upon, that to obtain justice, all classes, including priests and laymen, lawyer and client, legislators and people, regents and ministers, must submit to great imposition; that it is next to impossible to recover a debt by law except through bribery. If a debtor has money or patronage, and refuses to pay, it is difficult to obtain the payment even of an acknowledged note of hand through the process of the law, and it generally takes years to accomplish.

"It is, however, greatly to the praise of the Brazilians, that it is not often necessary to have recourse to law for this purpose. The greatest injustice occurs in the orphans' court: but the court of findings and losings is one of the most singular in this respect. It takes charge of all things lost and found, making it the duty of a person finding any thing to deposit it with the judge. The loser, to prove property, must have three witnesses to swear that they saw him lose it, and three others that they saw the finder pick it up, otherwise it remains as a deposit.

"The justices of the peace for each district are elected by the people, four at a time, to serve as many years by turns, substituting one for the other, when sickness or other circumstances prevent either from serving. They have final judgments in amounts not exceeding sixteen milreis. In cases of civil process, they act as mediators to effect a compromise and reconcile difficulties. Their political attributes are to preserve the peace in case of riot or disorder among the people; and they have a right to call on the national guard or military police to aid them, who must act under their direction. There is no civil police, and no imprisonment for debt."

tribes, speaking different tongues or idioms. Soliemoens contains several *povoacoes* (settlements), but in reality little more than a few rudely constructed buildings for the missions founded by the Carmelites along the banks of the Amazon. The *prezidio* de San Francisco Xavier de Tabatinga,* situated at the mouth of the Yavari, is estimated to be, by the voyageurs or canoemen, distant from the city of Para 2100 miles. The voyage upwards occupies from eighty to ninety days. A nation of aborigines, called *Soriman*, corrupted into *Solimáó* and *Soliemoens*, imparts a name to this province which is more thinly inhabited than any portion of Brazil. Its natural advantages of soil, climate, and river navigation, are, from all accounts, at least equal to those of any of the Mississippi regions. But a race of equal enterprize and industry with those which have peopled and cultivated and built cities in the latter, have not yet appeared on the waters, or amid the forests and plains of the former.

The REGION OF SPANISH GUIANA includes the whole of the Portuguese possessions north of the Amazon, west of the River Yamunda. This region extends about 900 miles from east to west, and from about 4 deg. north to 4 deg. south latitude. The western part forms the ouvidoria of the Rio Negro. This great river has its source in the Andes, and communicates by one of its branches, the Cassiquiari, with the Oronoco, and after flowing down upwards of 1100 miles, falls into the Amazon in latitude 3 deg. 16 min. south. A few leagues below the mouth of the Cassiquiari (from Para a voyage of eighty-six days going up) is, or was some time ago, the *fort* of San Joze dos Marabytaunas, then the remotest military station in this captaincy, situated on the left bank of the Rio Negro. Some other small posts were stationed between this and the Oronoco. Below San Joze there are straggling settlements of baptised Indians on each side of the river; and a few Portuguese adventurers, mixed races, and priests, appear here and there on the banks, and waters of the river down to its confluence with the Amazon. The Rio Branco is the largest tributary that enters the Rio Negro. It rises in the Sierra Baracayna from the northern slopes of which the Paragua, one of the great confluent of the Oronoco, flows.

Three leagues above the mouth of the Rio Negro is the town of Rio Negro (formerly the *fortaleza da Barra*), the entrepot for all the exports of the river, and the seat of government. According to the last accounts, it still contains a church, also a pottery, a rude cotton manufactory, and a rope-walk of the *piassaba palm*; all government works. At its mouth, the Rio Negro is about a mile wide, higher up it expands in some places to the width of seven and eight leagues. "Near the shore, the water appears the colour of amber; everywhere else, it is described as literally seeming black as ink; it is, however, perfectly clear, pure, and wholesome. The confluence is said to be a most

* Tabatinga is a fine white clay, much used in many parts of Brazil for buildings.

impressive spectacle ; but the turbid stream of the Amazon predominates, and the Black River loses its purity as well as its name. It is with the greatest delight that boatmen ascending from Para, or descending from the province of the Soliemoens, come in sight of the high lands at the bar ; for this river is free from all the physical plagues with which the Orellana is afflicted ; no torment of insects is felt there, no evils of local and endemic disease. When the Indians, therefore, escaping from both, first dip their oars into the clear dark waters, they set up a shout of joy, and enter with the sound of their rude music upon its happier navigation."

The YAPURA (or the Grande Caqueta), is one of the greatest rivers that flow into the Amazon. Its current is so rapid and mighty, that no boat could make way against it, were it not broken by innumerable islands. The scenery on its banks is described as magnificently romantic and beautiful, but the country is unhealthy. It communicates by lakes and streams with the Rio Negro.

The northern limits of Portuguese Guiana have been the subject of much dispute. By the treaty of Utrecht the river Oayapoek, Wiapoc, or Vincent Pinzon, was named as the common limit between Portuguese and French Guiana ; and the fort of St. Louis, situated on its northern margin, was the most southern establishment of what was called Equinoctial France. By the treaty of Amiens, the Aguary (or Arawary) was made the limit ; the line of demarcation being drawn from its source westward to the Branco, and the navigation was to be common to both nations. But by the treaty of 1817, Cayenne, which had been taken possession of by the Portuguese in 1809, was restored to France, and the Wiapoc was again made the boundary. Southey observes—

"To prevent all further cavil, its mouth was stated to be between the fourth and fifth degrees of north latitude, and in longitude 322 deg. east of the Island of Ferro. From thence, the line of demarcation was to be in conformity to the treaty of Utrecht."*

Where French Guiana terminates towards the west, the Brazilian territory borders on Columbia. The equinoctial line was their original boundary ; but the settlements on the Rio Negro, or rather, Portuguese encampments, have extended as high as the fourth parallel of north latitude.

The resources, such as great rivers, harbours, fertile soils, and valuable woods and fisheries, of Portuguese Guiana, are more than ample for the population and power of a great empire. Yet, at the present day, this vast region may be considered absolutely a wilderness, and, as far as the maintenance of the human race is concerned, scarcely superior to one great waste.

PROVINCE OF PARA.—Cazal divides the province of Para into four large districts : *Para Proper* is a flat and wooded country, extending west of Maranham 200 miles to the River Tocantines ; *Xinguatania*, lying between the Tocantines

* Southey, vol. iii., p. 691.

and the Xingu; *Tapajnoia*, extending from the latter river to the Tapajos; and *Mundrucania*, so denominated from the Mundrucu Indians who inhabit it, extending from the Tapajos to the Madera. Of these divisions, the last three are, with the exception of a few settlements or encampments, on the margins of the rivers, almost wholly in the possession of the aboriginal tribes.

The more proper boundaries of this immense country, is limited by the River Ayapoek, French, Dutch, and British Guiana, on the north of the Amazon, and by the Rivers Yamunda and Madera on the west, following the Madera south of the Amazon to the Falls of St. Antony, in latitude 8 deg. 50 min. south. A recent writer, a citizen of Para,* includes in the province of Para the whole region west to the Yavari, in 70 deg. west, or the country called the Province of Soliemons, with the exception that the latter region, and the greater part of Para is still uninhabited, except by nomade tribes. The authority of Para, it is true, is as much extended over these wild lands as any other under the Brazilian government. Our recent information respecting Para is based on the work of Monteiro Baena, Mr. Kidder's work, the most recent, and the British and French consular reports.

"This immense extent of land," says Baena, "is agreeable to live in, fertile, covered by a luxuriant vegetation, which is gifted with many rare varieties, and by majestic forests composed of splendid trees, and proper for domestic or naval uses. It contains extensive lakes, towering mountains, and vast valleys; the number of large rivers it encloses is astonishing."

The land is almost, without exception, of the most fertile description, and particularly so in the neighbourhood of the rivers and on their numerous islands, where the soil consists of successive alluvial deposits from four to eight feet deep.

Population.—The earliest tables of the population of the province are those of 1749, which then gave to the city of Para 900 hearths and 6579 inhabitants. After these we have only tables for the following years, viz.:—1788, 1083 hearths (families) and 10,600 souls; 1801, 1820 hearths and 11,500 souls; 1825, 1930 hearths and 13,240 souls; 1830, 1740 hearths and 12,467 souls.

"The increase up to 1825 was not inconsiderable, when we consider that during that period it was repeatedly the seat of serious disturbances, and suffered four calamitous visitations of the small-pox and measles, which at each period carried off *one-third* of the whole population; nor would we have to note a decrease of 180 hearths and 780 souls in the last census, compared to the previous one, were it not for our declaration of independence and the subsequent war with Portugal and the persecution and emigration of the Portuguese which

* "Corographical Essay" on the Province of Para, by Antonio Ladislau Monteiro Baena, a native of Para, Engineer and Professor of the Military School in Belem of Para, and Member of the Historical and Geographical Institution of Rio de Janeiro. Published at Para in November, 1839.

followed it. Further causes of decreased population were :— 1. The avidity which, after our independence, the young men sought public employment, neglecting agriculture ; 2. The quackery and ignorance of a number of men pretending to have a knowledge of medicine, the ignorance of midwives ; and 3. The little resort to lawful matrimony, and the spreading habit of celibacy, or rather of concubinage.”

“Many circumstances render it difficult to obtain an exact census of the population, particularly the pressing of men for the military or naval service ; and the ignorance and remissness of the clergy and other minor authorities.

The population of the province is composed of seven castes, viz. :—The whites, blacks, aborigines, mulattoes, Mamalucoes, *Curibocas*, and *Cafuzes*.

These distinctions are owing to the *whites* intermixing with the negro race and with the aborigines, and the cohabiting of the aborigines and African race. The Mamalucoes are the offspring of the whites and the aborigines ; the mulattoes and the negro women are the parents of the *Cafuzes* ; and the aborigines and the negro women produce the *Curibocas*, or Sambos.

Of these castes the whites are the fewest in number, and the aborigines the most numerous ; besides these there are numerous tribes of wandering natives, whose numbers are unknown, who roam in the forests, and live amongst the most fertile parts bordering on the numerous rivers. Signor Baena enumerates the names of 157 Indian tribes, some of which live in small villages, and trade with the Brazilians or Spaniards within the Brazilian territory.

He considers that the natural disposition of most of these tribes is such that their assimilation to social pursuits would be easily effected, and that they would then become as useful as other tribes, “such as the Minas, Mundurucas, Jurcinas, and Parapuras, who bring drugs from the forests, assist in curing and salting fish, in extracting oil or butter from the eggs, and navigate or paddle the trading canoes on the rivers.”

With regard to the aborigines established in villages, he says, “their number has rapidly declined ; in 1720 there existed 54,216, living in seventy-three missions, nineteen of which were established by the Jesuits, nine by the monks of St. Anthony, ten by the Capuchins, fifteen by the Carmelites, and ten by the mendicant friars. In 1839 their number was reduced to 32,751 living in villages, and none of the above orders of fathers or friars exist among them.

“Near the capital of Para there existed in 1720, domesticated natives 12,680 ; in 1800 they were reduced to about 5000, of which more than 2000 were occupied in cutting timber, and in transporting and loading it, in the construction of vessels, in throwing up works of defence for the city, and on board of armed vessels. In 1839 the number was reduced to 3500. The barbarous persecution

in the continued wars against the other aborigines, and the almost universal bad treatment of those poor people (which for so many reasons deserve our sympathy, and should even from self-interest have been differently treated, for they have undeniably given much manual labour to our predecessors), caused, with the devastations of the small-pox, this retrograde march of the Indian settlements all over the province, wherefore now most of the domesticated Indian villages are insignificant."

Climate.—Baena says,—“There is no particularly sensible difference in the climate of this province all the year round, yet there is a particular time for the production of fruits. The more lasting rains begin regularly in December or January, and last till June or July. On the upper part of the River Solimões they begin only in May. At that time some intermittent fevers (Tertian and Quartan) make their appearance, by which the forest Indians suffer much, because they have no means of curing or nursing themselves, and, like all savages when falling ill, become immediately pusillanimous. At that time the rivers also swell and rise above their ordinary banks, and in some, particularly the Amazon and Madera, the voyages upward become very troublesome, because of the great currents which the barges and canoes must overcome by being drawn by ropes from the banks; towards the evening very severe storms are frequent, and almost of daily occurrence on those rivers, and often as dangerous to small craft as the above-named.

“The verdure of the trees is uninterrupted all the year round, and about October or November only the pasturage gets sometimes dried up on the more elevated points, because August, September, October, and November, are the least rainy months.

“The morning air is particularly delicious. As the afternoon approaches a pleasing coolness comes on, and the nights are generally sufficiently cool, and the climate does decidedly not possess that high degree of temperature which the tropical situation of the country would authorise us to expect.

“The innumerable rivers, bays, and lakes, the prevailing north-west and east trade winds, and the extensive forests refresh the air in a wonderful manner. In 1839, among twenty-seven parishes there were existing thirty-six men and thirty women above ninety years old, amongst which were eleven white men and seven white women, and there is credible proof of an Indian woman having reached the age of 200 years.”

Natural Productions of the Province of Para.—Our author, in his account of the indigenous productions of Para, says,—

“The abundance of interesting productions and articles of commerce which *pristine* nature offers spontaneously in Para to medicine and to the arts is extraordinary, though it must be said that its inhabitants, as yet, by no means endeavour to profit fully of this uncommon liberality of the Creator. There are known twenty-three different palm-trees, each yielding fruit, fibres, cordage, oil, and even *spirits*; twelve kinds of trees having a milky substance, yielding india-rubber or other gums; twenty-two kinds of superior timber for ship-building; thirty-four varieties of wood for housebuilding or for canoes, because of its peculiar lightness; thirteen kinds of wood for joiner’s work; and five which are particularly good for making charcoal, besides many other unknown qualities not yet examined, and an immense variety of bushes, plants, roots, &c. In October, 1839, a collection of 340 species of woods was completed in the province of Rio de Janeiro on a surface not exceeding a few leagues. Amongst these there are more than forty known as drugs, and above twenty different containing colouring matter, besides many varieties of *tanins*, &c. Amongst the drugs there exist in abundance two kinds of vanilla, one of the same kind as is exported from Mexico, and resins and balms of various kinds; many odoriferous resins, such as storax, &c.; many kinds of oil-nuts, cocoa, tobacco, cotton, and other fibres, coffee, rice, castor-beans, &c., cloves, cinnamon, and the *matte-plant*; ten known kinds of Chili-peppers, twelve known varieties of

indigenous, farinaceous roots and potatoes in use; twenty-one kinds of fruit-trees in use, amongst which the mango and the bread-fruit; six kinds of bananas and plantains, various kinds of grapes; almost all European vegetables and flowers are grown in the town of Para, and many indigenous, aromatic herbs. Melons and pine-apples grow in abundance."

Live Animals.—Of quadrupeds Signor Baena enumerates thirty-six as animals of the chase or to be hunted, amongst which the largest is the tapir (*amphibious*) the tiger, fox, various kinds of wild boars, five kinds of deer, &c.

Ornithology.—He enumerates 111 kinds of birds; amongst which are many of the pheasant, peacock, and turkey species, and numerous game birds, particularly the black and snow-white *curaçãos*.

Fishes.—He names seventy-six kinds of fish caught in fresh water; amongst them, large quantities of *sardinhas*, and abundance of the *guriuba*, a fish with a yellow skin without scales, which is largely consumed, fresh, dried, or salted; between the head and under the belly, it has a white substance, equal to the Russian *isinglass*, and also used in Para to clarify coffee, wine, &c. The *piraurucu*, is dried like cod-fish, and also exported. The *vacca marinha*, or *manati*, which we have already described, he describes as having a head similar to that of a calf; "it never comes on shore, but lifts its head above the water, and feeds on the plants growing on the banks or in the lakes; the female has breasts, and suckles the young ones; its flesh is like beef. It is the most general animal food, roasted or fried, and is dried and salted, or preserved in its own fat in large vessels. It is also exported. Sausages are also made from its flesh. Some of the lakes are full of them, and many are so large as to yield a pipe of oil." He then describes the several modes of taking them by the Para Indians, and which insure them always a subsistence. Crabs, lobsters, shrimps, oysters, and muscles, he says, are abundant.

Of Reptiles, he enumerates twenty-five kinds; amongst which are twenty-one serpents, including the enormous *boa-constrictor*.

Crustaceous Animals.—Eleven kinds of these are enumerated; amongst them, two kinds of crocodiles, and two of tortoise or turtle; of the first, some are twenty feet long, and afford great quantities of blubber for oil; turtle abound in indescribable multitudes in the rivers Soliemoens, Branco, Madera, Tocantines, and others. Their meat is said to be very good before they lay their eggs, but not for some time after. From the eggs and from the fat of the animal, the Mantega butter, already described, is prepared in great abundance for general use in the province. It is used for light, and for the food of the poorer classes.

The speckled tortoise also abound on the banks of the Caité, near the River Gurupi (salt water), and between this river and the Bay of San Joas, into which flows the Turicassu.

Live Stock.—Herds of cattle formerly swarmed on the Island of Joanna Marajo; but they are not, according to Baena, so numerous as they have at one time

been. In some cattle-farms on that island they manufacture cheese similar to the *Minas Geraes cheese*, but it is not so good. Nothing has as yet been done for the improvement of the breed of horses. Neither the sheep nor goats are of good breed, and no use is made of their skin and wool. Pigs, though much neglected, are generally of a much larger description than those of Portugal.

CITY OF PARA, AND ENTRANCE TO THE AMAZON.

Mr. Kidder, in 1844, appears to confirm the accuracy of the native geographer, Baena. The former sailed from Maranhão to Para. The voyage was formerly performed by canoes coasting round not less than thirty-two bays, some of them so broad, that the opposite land is frequently invisible.* At present the voyage is performed in a steamboat.

The distance from Maranhão to Para by sea is about 400 miles, and the voyage is performed by the steam-packets in from two to three days. The coast is uniformly low, and much intersected with bays and lagoons. The southern mouth of the Amazon is usually called the Para river. The entrance is intricate, and by no means safe, as there are no prominent landmarks. In the night, or in thick weather, it is almost impossible to discover the only pilot station on the coast, called Selinas, and the pilots are never met at any considerable distance out at sea. The Para entrance lies between the two dangerous shoals of Tigoça and Braganza. Vessels have been frequently wrecked on these, and the crews have sometimes all perished. In descending the river, there is little danger. If the weather is clear, the breakers on the Tigoça and Braganza banks are seen, as the tide flows upwards; after entering this mouth of the Amazon the conflict of the ascending and descending waters is called, by its aboriginal name, *pororoca*, and characterises the navigation for some hundreds of miles. No sailing vessel can descend the river while the tide is rushing up from the ocean; and both in ascending and descending, distances are measured and regulated by tides. Para is said to be three tides from the ocean, and a vessel entering with the flood must anchor during two ebb tides before reaching the city. Canoes and small vessels, to avoid any danger from the *pororoca*, generally lay-to in certain places called *esperas*, or resting-places, where the water is little agitated. Most of the vessels used in the Amazon are constructed with reference to its tidal navigation; that is, for floating with the stream rather than for sailing before the wind, although sails may often be serviceable.

The regular ebb and flow of the tides in the Amazon are observed as far as the confluence of the Madera, 600 miles above the mouth. The *pororoca* is much more turbulent on the northern side of the island of Marajo, where the

* The bays and lagoons along the coast, are often connected by intricate streams and channels. The former circuitous voyage in canoes traversed more than double the present direct voyage. The canoes were driven ashore each evening, and the party rested for the night. They were navigated by Indians, who then received only about twopence per diem.

mouth is broader, and the current more shallow. M. de la Condamine a hundred years ago wrote:—

“During three days before the new and full moons, the period of the highest tides, the sea, instead of occupying six hours to reach its flood, swells to its highest limits in one or two minutes. It might be inferred that such a phenomenon could not take place in a very tranquil manner. The noise of this terrible flood is heard five or six miles, and increases as it approaches. Presently you see a liquid promontory twelve or fifteen feet high, followed by another, and another, and sometimes by a fourth. These watery mountains spread across the whole channel, and advance with a prodigious rapidity, rending and crushing every thing in their way. Immense trees are instantly uprooted by it, and sometimes whole tracts of land are swept away.”

On ascending the Amazon, the colour of the water changes from the dark blue of the sea to a lightish green, and then gradually to a dirty yellow. The mouth even of the lesser entrance is so broad, that when above forty miles within it, the coast and the island of Marajo are scarcely visible at the same time. The shores are low, and densely covered with mangroves, with scarcely a settlement, except the village of Collares. The Fort da Barra, where vessels are boarded by revenue officers, is two miles below from the city of Para.

PARA, or the city of Belem, is situated in 1 deg. 21 min. south latitude, and 48 deg. 28 min. west longitude, on an elevated point of land, on the south-eastern bank of the Para river, and eighty miles from the ocean. From the sea it has a very striking and pleasing appearance. The anchorage is good and safe, within an abrupt curve in the channel, which admits vessels of a large draft. The island of Marajo is twenty miles distant, but invisible from smaller islands intervening.

Para, like most Brazilian towns, exhibits whitened walls and red-tiled roofs; it is regularly laid out; and has public squares, called the Palace-place, the Quartel, and the Largo da Polvora, and several smaller squares in front of the cathedral, and of several of the convents. The streets are neither well paved nor wide. There are many large well-built houses, but the back streets consist chiefly of wretched small dwellings.

The best houses are well adapted to the climate, with a wide veranda often extending around the outside of the building; and another, along at least three sides of a large interior area. A part of the inner veranda, or a room connected with it, serves as an airy and pleasant eating-room. The front rooms only are ceiled, except in the best houses. Latticed windows are more common than glass; but occasionally some houses have both; preference is always given to lattices in the dry season. Instead of alcoves and beds for sleeping, hammocks swing across the corners of all the large rooms, and along the verandas. Some houses have hooks for swinging hammocks for fifty or sixty persons every night.

The insurrection of 1835 was greatly injurious to Para. In almost every street there are houses still, battered more or less with bullets or cannon shot. Some have been repaired, others abandoned.

Para fronts the river, and in its rear there is a beautiful shaded walk. The Estrada das Mangabeiras extends from near the marine arsenal on the river side, to the Largo da Polvora on the eastern extremity of the city. It is intersected by avenues leading from the Palace Square and the Largo do Quartel. Its name is derived from the mangabeira-trees, with which it is densely shaded on either side. The bark of these trees is of a light grayish colour, regularly striped with green,—their product is a coarse cotton that may be used for several purposes,—their appearance is at once neat and majestic. In the immediate vicinity of this road is the old convent, now hospital, of San Jozé, and near by it the *recolhimento* of orphan girls. In the grounds of the former establishment a botanical garden was commenced in 1797, for the cultivation of indigenous and foreign plants and trees. The spices and fruits of the East Indies would have flourished here, and, mingled with the botanical plants of the American torrid zone, would have formed a collection unrivalled for richness and variety. But what was only commenced, has been long since abandoned. There are a few private gardens in the vicinity, but neglect of improvement has followed disorders that have for many years prevailed in this town; many streets are overgrown with thick bushes. In the suburbs are forsaken tenements, and the walls of large houses. Beyond the actual precincts of the city, a dense forest commences.

Mr. Kidder says, “The traveller, on entering Para, is struck with the peculiar appearance of the people. The regularly descended Portuguese and Africans do not, indeed, differ from their brethren in other parts, but they are comparatively few here, while the Indian race predominates. The aborigines of Brazil may here be seen both in pure blood, and in every possible degree of intermixture with both blacks and whites. They occupy every station in society, and may be seen as the merchant, the tradesman, the sailor, the soldier, the priest, and the slave. In the last-named condition they excited most my attention and sympathy. The thought of slavery is always revolting to an ingenuous mind; whether it be considered as forced upon the black, the white, or the red man. But there has been a fatality connected with the enslavement of the Indians, extending both to their captors and to themselves, which invests their servitude with peculiar horrors.

“Nearly all the revolutions that have occurred at Para are directly or indirectly traceable to the spirit of revenge with which the bloody expeditions of the early slave-hunters are associated in the minds of the natives and mixed bloods throughout the country.”

As the aborigines are no longer directly enslaved, they are *daily pressed* for the service of the army and navy.

The large river *canoas* are rudely constructed crafts, with stem and stern square,

the after part rises out of the water like that of a Chinese junk ; over their poop there is a round-house, generally made of thatch, for protection against the sun and the dew, and under which hammocks for sleeping are swung ; sometimes, there is a similar round-house over the bows ; there is also a sort of elevated spar-deck. The steersman generally sits upon the roof of the after round-house. These rude vessels are well enough adapted to their purpose of floating with the tide.

In one part of the city, when beasts are slaughtered for markets, vast numbers of vultures are observed perched upon the trees, or flying indolently in the air. Along the margin of the river, both morning and evening, great numbers of people may be seen bathing. Men, women, and children, belonging to the lower classes, may be seen at the same moment diving, plunging, and swimming, in different directions.

Ponta das Pedras is the principal landing-place, where there are usually numerous canoes and aborigines conversing in the various dialects of the Amazon, and keeping or delivering parrots, macaws, and some other birds of gorgeous plumage, and occasionally monkeys and serpents. They also bring for sale, Brazil nuts, cacao, vanilla, annatto, sarsaparilla, cinnamon, tapioca, balsam of copaiba in pots, coarse dried fish in packages, and baskets of fruits, in infinite variety, both green and dry, with immense quantities of gum-elastic shoes; suspended on long poles.

Close beside the palace there are the walls of a half-erected theatre, commenced 1775. The prison, in the same neighbourhood, bears the date of 1775.

The *juiz de direito* is the chief officer of the police, who examines all passports, and gives a licence of residence.

No monks of any orders are left. The money expended in the erection of the five monasteries in Para, appropriated to secular use, must have been immense.

The cathedral of Para, said by Mr. Kidder to be the largest religious edifice in the empire, was commenced in 1720, and completed and consecrated in 1775 by a bishop, attended by the monks, magnates, and people. Like most of the other churches it is built in the form of a cross.

The *population** of the Comarca of Para, or Belem, in thirty-two villas, seventeen hamlets, and five missionary stations, is stated by Baena, in 1839, as follows:—Free people, 90,767 ; slaves, 26,961=117,728. Comarca of the great island of Joanés Marajos, in five villas and six hamlets: free people, 10,689 ; slaves, 2040=12,739. In the Comarca of the Rio Negro, in nine villas and thirty-eight hamlets: free people, 17,881 ; slaves, 962=18,843.—Total of settled inhabitants in 1839, 149,854.

* The Marquis of San Joas da Palma, former governor of Matto Grosso, estimated the number of the aborigines of Brazil at above 1,000,000 ; of which the by far greater part are in the province of Para and Matto Grosso.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF PARA.

PARA enjoys one great advantage over every other sea-port town in Brazil, from its unparalleled intercourse by water with the interior. The commercial resources of this country, and the admirable trading position of the city are of the first rank. But the men and people to bring forth the elements of profit and civilisation are wanting. Some Glasgow merchants opened the trade with great spirit, but their property, to the value of about 70,000*l.* sterling, was most flagrantly pillaged during the revolt in 1835. Some American citizens have instituted saw-mills at Maguery, in the neighbourhood. The cotton-wools of Para are admirable. Caoutchouc is abundant, and made into shoes, &c. The following are the articles enumerated by Baena as those exported from Para, viz. :—

“Cotton, rice (large grained), ditto, (small), oil of Andiroba, castor-oil, copaiva-palm, rum, spirits of aniseed, Indian-rubber, painted fruit shell vessels, cocoas of various kinds, cacao, cloves, coffee, crajina, hides, sweet chestnut, cinnamon, horns, casto-rbeans, horses, sweetmeats, farina, tapioca, isinglass, guarana, gums of various sorts, gergelin (*ben oil-seed*), guariuba, tutai-issica, earthenware of Cameta, honey, wax, maquiras, Indian-corn, puriri (spice-nut), piassaba fibres, piassaba cordage. Choice woods, amongst which are rosewood, zebra-wood, and lignum-vitæ, hoops made of creepers, oars, netted hammocks, cotton-spun cloth, sarsaparilla, sumauma, tallow, tonquin-beans, tobacco, tana, tacuaris (cane), tabocas, anatto, calves'-skins, hides, vanilla, Peruvian-bark, tar, turtle-butter, and isinglass.”

The ports to which the above goods are chiefly exported are:—Lisbon, Oporto, Gibraltar, Salem, Nantes, New York, Liverpool, London, Alexandria, Barbadoes, Cayenne, Maranhão, Oará, and Pernambuco: the exportation, coastwise, is not accounted for with exactitude. Mr. Baena states the value of exports during the following years to be as under :—

	Dollars.		Dollars.
In 1789, to	286,085 618	In 1816, to	578,928 575
1796,	297,429 127	1819,	452,715 633
1799,	343,672 853	1827,	488,253 758
1806,	785,323 941		

Inland Trade.—While in other parts of Brazil the interchange of goods is impeded by a want of good roads, canals, and navigable rivers, Baena observes,

“The whole province of Para is thrown open in all directions and free from every impediment. Its highways and by-ways are all by water, on bays, rivers, lakes, and creeks, and will remain so as long as the same laws of nature will rule our globe. Nothing is more self-evident than that with such happy topographical facilities, and the fertility of its soil, and the variety of its productions, this province is destined at an early day to carry on a commerce of vast importance. The canoes in 1839 generally employed, carried from 1000 arrobas to above 2000 arrobas, or about forty-five to fifty tons, and the number of their oarsmen were from five to nine Indians. The river barges are only of a moderate date, and are decidedly much more advantageous on such distant voyages.”

The towns of Cameta, Vigia, Macapa, Monte-Allegre, Lantarem, Obidos, Tari Assu and Barra do Rio Negro are the trading places of the interior, but Tari Assu exports nearly all its cotton and cacao to Maranhão.

RETURN of the British and Foreign Trade at the Port of Para, for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1845.

N A T I O N S.	I N W A R D S.			
	Number of Ships.	Register Ton- nage.	Number of Men.	Value of Cargoes in British Sterling.
		tons.		£
British	9	1,474	83	20,980
Portuguese	14	2,390	277	10,460
French	9	1,940	99	15,348
United States.....	28	3,929	224	47,240
Hamburg	3	524	29	2,745
Denmark	2	320	18	
Tuscany	1	140	11	550
Spain.....	1	120	9	325
Belgium.....	1	145	10	1,540
Hanover	1	154	10	
Total.....	69	11,136	770	99,188

The Danish and Hamburg ships, and two other foreign ones, were chartered here to take cargoes for English account to foreign ports.

The cocoa crop has been very short this year, and many ships have sailed in consequence, both for Europe and the United States, only half or two-thirds loaded.

BRITISH and Foreign Trade—*continued.*

N A T I O N S.	O U T W A R D S.				SHIPS IN PORT.	
	Number of Ships.	Register Ton- nage.	Number of Men.	Value of Car- goes in British Sterling.	Of what Na- tions.	No.
		tons.		£	countries.	
British	8	1,267	72	17,207	United States	3
Portuguese.....	15	2,755	293	33,470	Portuguese	3
French.....	9	1,940	99	20,655	English	1
United States.....	27	3,628	204	52,324	Hamburg	1
Hamburg	2	470	20	3,847		
Denmark.....	4	690	37	10,780		
Tuscany.....	1	140	11	1,470		
Spain.....	1	120	9	745		
Belgium.....	2	281	19	3,260		
Hanover.....	1	154	10	3,747		
Total.....	70	11,445	774	147,505		8

The coasting trade between this port and that of Maranhão is carried on by three small ships, who have made collectively, within the year, nineteen voyages inwards and nineteen outwards, and discharging at this port foreign merchandise, during this period, for value of 65,400*l.*

They have loaded at this port produce, during the said period, for Maranhão, for value of 23,760*l.*

During the year we have had the arrival of nineteen steam packets from Rio de Janeiro, and who touch on their voyages, here and back, at the intermediate ports of Bahia, Alagoes, Pernambuco, Ceará, and Maranhão.

BRITISH CONSULATE, PARA, *January, 5, 1845.*

The general revenue of the province of Para for the year 1844 only produced 142 contos de reis, or 14,791*l.* British sterling; the government expenses for the same period, including troops and navy, amounted to 23,958*l.*; deficiency, 9167*l.*, supplied from Rio de Janeiro.

The sugar and coffee plantations do not produce sufficient for home consumption, and supplies of both are imported from the southern provinces.

The imports are all descriptions of manufactured cotton goods, silks, hardware, wines, spirits, porter, salt, flour, salt provisions, furniture, olive-oil, gunpowder, iron in bars, lead, cordage, sail-cloth, &c.

The only manufactures carried on in this province are those of ordinary cotton cloth for sacks and hammocks; Indian-rubber is worked into shoes and into different forms.

There are no public works carrying on in the province, and all those which were formerly executed are fast going to decay.

The naval force on the Para river is only one brig of eight guns and six schooners of from four to six guns.

The military force of the province is reduced to 1300 troops of the line and 1200 militia, but the latter only exists on paper in the government offices.

CHAPTER VIII.

PROVINCES OF MARANHAM, PIAUHY, CEARA, AND RIO GRANDE.

THE province of Maranham is bounded on the west by Para, with the sea to the north, Piauhv to the east, and Goyaz on the south. The River Maranham gives its name to this province. It was first entered by Pinzon in 1500; thirty years afterwards the country was erected into a captaincy; but the first settlement was made by Ravadiere, a Huguenot, who sailed from Bretagne in 1612. Several expeditions having been made to the country, which either failed or perished, Ravadiere and his companions, erected a fort on the present site of Maranham, and built a warehouse and other houses. The French were expelled some years afterwards by the Portuguese; it was afterwards occupied by the Dutch. The early history of the province is a record of misfortunes, cruelties, and nearly at all times of the slave trade.

The coast of Maranham is rendered dangerous by shallows, and, for sailing vessels by the currents and winds. The borders of its numerous rivers are considered fruitful, and it has certainly prospered, when compared to many other parts. Indigenous fruits are abundant. Cotton and rice appear more attended to than any other products. Rice is said to be far better adapted to the soil than the sugar-cane. The province is said to be rich in minerals. Fish of excellent quality is abundant. Sheep, cattle, and horses, multiply fast. The Itapicuru is its largest river. It is rapid, but navigable in the middle parts, by flat-bottomed barges, in the lower by small sailing vessels, and in the upper by canoes. Cotton and rice are the chief crops grown on its banks. It flows down in many parts through a fertile country.

THE CITY OF MARANHAM.—On approaching the coast from the sea, there is a lighthouse at the base of the mountain or hill of Itacolumi, fifty miles from the city. There is another lighthouse on the island of Santa Anna. The bay upwards is decked with numerous small islands.

The village of Alcantara, on the mainland, and the Fort de San Marcos, on the Island of Maranham are then passed, with its battery and telegraph. At Fort San Antonio, situated on the Ponta das Areas, near the city, ships are hailed. The channel leading to the anchorage is intricate and winding.

The city of San Luis de Maranham is situated in 2 deg. 31 min. south latitude, and 44 deg. 16 min. west longitude, on the north-western extremity of the

island of the same name, which is only separated from the mainland by a narrow channel called the Maranhão River. Its population is estimated at 33,000 including a few English and French commercial houses. The city is divided into two parishes, and contains thirteen churches and chapels, three monasteries, one *recolhimento of educandas*, and six hospitals, of which the Misericórdia is the principal. It has a lyceum, a Latin school, two primary schools for boys, two for girls, four private schools, and an ecclesiastical seminary, in one of the monasteries. As a city, it ranks as the fourth in the empire.

Maranhão is said to be better built than any other city of Brazil. Mr. Kidder, in 1844, says,—

“It exhibits a general neatness and an air of enterprize, which rarely appears in the other towns of the empire. There are, moreover, within its bounds but few huts and indifferent houses. None of the churches appear unusually large or sumptuous, but many of the private dwellings are of a superior order. The style of construction is at once elegant and durable. The walls are massive, being composed of stone broken fine and laid in cement. Although the town does not occupy a large extent of ground, yet the surface it covers is very unequal. Its site extends over two hills, and consequently a valley. The rise and descent in the streets are in many places very abrupt. Scarcely any carriages are in use, and corresponding to this circumstance, there is only one good carriage road in the entire vicinity. That road leads a short distance out of town. The *cadeira* is but little known here as a means of conveyance. The *rede*, or hammock, is generally used as a means of easy locomotion. It is very common, both in Maranhão and Pará, to see ladies in this manner taking their *passeio* or promenade. Gentlemen in health do not often make a public appearance in this style, although it is generally conceded that they are quite fond of swinging in their hammocks at home.”

The streets of Maranhão are laid out in straight lines; and by the agency of wind and rain, they are kept clean. The pavements are composed of a conglomerate sandstone, the same that is used for buildings; but as they have no gradings, nor even smooth stones for side walks, they are very tiresome and unpleasant to foot passengers. The town contains several ornamental squares, some of which are bordered with trees.

One of the most picturesque walks within the precincts of the city, is to the public cemetery. The English have also a Protestant cemetery.

CONSUL'S Return of the Trade of Maranhão for the Year 1841 (being an average Year).

DESCRIPTION.	ARRIVALS.				DEPARTURES.			
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	number.	number.	number.	£ s. d.	number.	number.	number.	£ s. d.
British.....	25	8448	397	238,224 3 8	23	7,746	372	167,335 17 3
Brazilian.....	45	6206	572	29,982 2 6	52	7,348	675	46,390 0 0
Portuguese.....	15	3406	239	55,971 16 3	14	3,556	233	52,062 10 0
Spanish.....	19	3067	212	44,867 13 9	18	3,014	199	34,809 7 6
French.....	8	1866	105	45,681 15 0	8	1,866	105	6,082 10 0
American.....	19	2475	156	35,677 11 9	18	2,328	159	8,246 10 0
Hamburg.....	1	160	11	11,416 0 6	2	320	22	2,097 10 0
Belgian.....	2	226	17	7,705 3 6	2	226	17	2,809 5 0
Total.....	134	25,854	1709	359,526 6 11	137	26,434	1,782	319,833 9 9

NOTE.—Of the 25 British vessels that arrived there were from Great Britain (with merchandise) 17, flour 1, total 18; from Rio de Janeiro (in ballast) 4, from Demerara (in ballast) 1, from Pará (with Pará produce) 1, from Pernambuco (in ballast) 1; total 25.—Of the 23 British vessels that departed, there were for Great Britain (with cotton and other produce) 19, for Pará with part of inward cargo 2, for Rio de Janeiro (with troops) 1, for do. (in ballast) 1; total 23.

The PROVINCE of PIAUHY lies to the east of Maranhão. It is divided into five comarcas, three of which are said to be kept in an orderly state of administration. The others are usually in the most unsafe condition. This province has but twenty leagues of sea-coast; but it extends to the south and inland about 400 miles. It is generally level, and in some parts undulated. It has extensive unwooded plains, with large herds of cattle. Silver, lead, and iron mines are said to abound. The soil in many parts is well adapted for the cultivation of mandioca, rice, maize, cotton, and sugar-canes. Its principal river is the Parahiba, which flows into the sea by several intricate channels. Its capital is Oeiras, with about 5000 inhabitants. There is no seaport for foreign trade, but it carries on some coasting traffic.

The PROVINCE of RIO GRAND DEL NORTE lies between Parahiba and Ceará. Its coast is uniformly low and sandy; but inland it is described as undulated, and its forests are said to afford the best Brazil wood, and many drugs. The soil is not generally fertile; but the climate is considered healthy. It produces cotton, sugar-cane, rice, and several other articles; the rearing of cattle is in some parts a principal object.

NATAL, the capital, is situated on the right bank of a river, near its mouth. It is an old town, but its population is small. It was a place of importance during the Dutch wars, and its fortress, by which the city is still defended, was then considered the strongest in Brazil. The port admits no larger vessels than 150 tons burden. The foreign commerce of the province is inconsiderable, and there is no prospect of its improvement. Within the limits of this province is Cape St. Roque, which is the north-eastern point of the coast of South America. A large rock marks the extremity of this cape.*

PROVINCE of CEARA.—This large province is faced chiefly with white sand-hills, but they do not extend inland. Cotton and dye-woods are the principal exports. The cattle are considered among the best in breed in the empire, and are driven to supply the markets of Pernambuco and Ceará. The carnauba palm, *caraphera linfera*, is a beautiful tree, and is said to rival the cocoa palms. They also furnish food, building materials, and raiment. Besides the edible nut, or the fruit, the *palmito*, the tender extremity of the flowering branch, is deemed delicious eating. These palms have trunks remarkably regular and strong, and serving either for fuel or building timber.

* The Island of Fernando de Noronha, which lies about seventy leagues north-east from Cape St. Roque, in south latitude 3 deg. 56 min. This island has been successively under the dominion of Portugal, Holland, France, and Brazil. It is about twenty miles in circumference. Many little islets are divided from the principal island, and from each other by narrow channels. They are all rocky and barren, although frequented by vast numbers of sea-fowl. There is good fishing round it; and it has two harbours, but not very safe in stormy weather, and looks at a distance like a great church with a steeple. It has long been a place of exile and imprisonment. The Portuguese had formerly no less than seven forts. No woman is allowed to land on this island. There is a garrison for preventing the escape of criminals.

"The great natural advantages of this province," says Mr. Kidder, "must be noted among the existing causes of its low state of improvement. The stern voice of necessity, 'work or die,' never disturbs the day dreams of the Brazilian, as he yawns in his hammock during the bright hours of sunshine. The great mass of the lower classes live as they list. Their wants are few and simple, and to a great degree conformed to the spontaneous productions of nature. Multitudes of Indians inhabit Ceara, in a state of semi-barbarism. As a general rule, they are idle and vicious, living chiefly upon indigenous fruits, or those which are cultivated with scarcely any trouble—but seeking occasional plunder."

Formerly the aborigines were under a careful regulation, and were *hired* to work on the plantations. This superintendence has disappeared,—the wretched beings are in a state of utter neglect and indolence, and no efforts are made for their instruction or improvement. Slaves are comparatively few in the province. This is lamented by the people generally, as a great calamity; but indolence enough prevails, and it would be cruel to enslave others to increase the laziness of the free population. The *melancia*, or *water-melon*, is produced here in profusion. These melons are eaten as a principal article of food, especially by the Indians and mixed races. They are so abundant, as to be sold frequently at the rate of twenty cents per hundred. For a penny may often be purchased as much as would feed a man for a week.

Mr. Kidder says,—

"Thousands of these people, in the interior, have never seen the article of bread. An anecdote was related to me of a matuto from the far sertão, who, on visiting Aracaty, resolved to gratify his curiosity respecting what he had so often heard of as a great foreign luxury. He accordingly went to a baker's shop and purchased a hat full of rolls, and then seated himself under a tree and commenced paring them, as he would oranges or bananas. The taste, however, did not please his palate, and he soon threw them away as unfit to be eaten."

The freshets and the droughts are considered the scourges of these parts.

"During the droughts," says Mr. Kidder, "years have been known to pass by without rain. At such times vegetation perishes, and both animals and human beings die off without number. It was painful to listen to the descriptions given of these *seccas*, and the famine consequent upon them. I was prepared to understand them by the details previously given me of a similar scene, which a gentleman, with whom I met in Pernambuco, had witnessed a few years previously in Rio Grande do Norte. Absolute starvation prevailed in the country, and the only hope of the inhabitants was in finding their way to parts of the coast to which supplies had been brought from abroad. Hundreds died upon the way, and their emaciated corpses were scattered upon the sand, often without interment, but so emaciated and withered as scarcely to taint the air, or offer a banquet to the worm. Some who had strength to arrive, and money with which to purchase food, survived. Others arrived too late, and being so exhausted and enfeebled, that the morsel which they craved to sustain life only served to hasten their dissolution."

The province of Ceara contains, by estimation, 180,000 inhabitants. In 1841, it possessed thirty-one primary schools, frequented by 830 pupils; and Latin schools, with forty-six pupils. The House of Correction belonging to the province, was occupied by eighteen delinquents. Its prisons were few,

and generally insufficient to prevent the escape of criminals. The following is the official list of crimes committed during the year, between July, 1840, and July, 1841:—Murders, seventy-two; attempt to murder, fifteen; threat, one; serious wounds, twenty; light wounds, twenty-four; physical injuries, four; robbery, ten; theft, seventeen; rape, three; calumny and injury, eight; use of prohibited arms, two; prevarication, one; disobedience, fifteen; defalcation, two; abuse of authority, one; sedition, one:—total, 196.

Speaking of religion,—

“ ‘The unquestionable fact,’ says President Coelho, ‘is not only chargeable upon a clergy (with some honourable exceptions), of being ignorant, depraved in habits, corrupt in morals, involved in the concerns of the world, and totally forgetful of their heavenly mission; but it is also due to the indifference with which the legislature treats the wants of the church.’ ”

“Not long since a proposition was made to the National Assembly to erect a new inland province. A desire for improvement is said to prevail in Ceara, and various enterprizes have been projected; but the depressed state of its finances has prevented their completion. The reflector, and other apparatus of a light-house, which is very much needed on Point Micoripe, had been imported from England, and lain in the custom-house four years for want of funds to put it in operation. Lamps and fixtures for lighting the streets of the town had been provided; but up to the present, there was a lack of funds to supply them with oil. There was not a single cemetery or graveyard for the use of the city. All the interments were made, from year to year, in the solitary church of the town, which was thus rendered, as the president expresses it, ‘the very focus of putrefaction and pestilence.’ ”—*Kidder*.

The town of Ceara is situated in 3 deg. 42 min. 58 sec. south latitude, and 38 deg. 34 min. west longitude. Its port is difficult to find, from there being generally a thick haze over the land. Its landmarks are the point of Micoripe, on the south, and the inland mountain-peaks of Mararanguape, to the north. These are the only high mountains seen near the coast north of Bahia. They mark the termination of the great Serra do Mar, which ranges through at least twenty degrees of latitude, in some parts approaching near the ocean, in others inland.

Ceara is frequently called Fortaleza, after an old fortress erected near to defend the harbour. Little of the city is visible from the sea, except this fort and the few huts which line its sides. On the left of the town there is a small river, whose banks are adorned with *coqueiros*.

The public buildings are not large, and are constructed in the usual Brazilian manner. The city does not contain a convent, nor any monastic edifice. This remark applies to the whole of Ceara, but to no other province in Brazil. The only finished church in Ceara is that of Nossa Senhora do Rozario, the especial protectress of the negroes. That of the Conception, frequented by the whites, was a few years ago pulled down, in order to be rebuilt on a larger scale; but the work stopped when the walls were about half erected, and still remains in that condition.

The Bay of Ceara opens to the north, forming a regular and spacious semi-

circular form. The harbour is protected and screened by a reef of rocks under water. It is said to become annually shallower from the sand filling it up.

Mr. Kidder says, in 1842,—

“At the time of our arrival, a few coasting-smacks and an English brig were all the vessels in port. The landing is nowhere good, on account of the heavy surf that continually breaks upon the strand. Adapted to this, the pilot-boat in which I went on shore was guarded by strong outriggers to prevent capsizing, but even then did not willingly come in contact with the shore.”

After conveying passengers from the ship to a fordable depth, they are landed in a *paviola*, a kind of chair elevated on poles, and carried by four men in the same manner as a *bier*.

The PROVINCE OF PARAHIBA comprehends the larger portion of the old captaincy of Itamaraca, and extends west nearly 200 miles to the boundary of Ceara. The River Paraiba, or Parahyba, which rises in the Serra do Jabitaca, flows to the north-east, and falls into the Atlantic by two channels, divided by the island of St. Bento. The coast of Parahiba extends about sixty miles along the shores of the sea and bays of the town.

The absence of industry and the state of morals in this province has been severely animadverted upon in Brazil, and instead of justice being enforced by the laws, it is said that parties take not summary justice, but revenge into their own hands. Religious observances, fêtes, and processions, are, however, common.

Mr. Kidder, who gives the most recent account of this province, sailed to it by a singularly-built vessel, a sort of catamaran, called in Brazil, a *jangada*.*

“When,” says he “about to embark from Itamaraca, I found it as necessary to secure a good *jangada*, as it would be in New York to select a choice berth for a passage to Liverpool. The *Paquete do Norte* was recommended to me as one of the finest craft owned on the island.

“On its being chartered expressly for a passenger, the proprietor proceeded to fit it out in extra style, by putting a *girau*† upon it.”

* “A voyage at sea upon a *jangada* is not an incident of every day's occurrence, at least with North Americans. Nor is it easy to convey in words a perfect idea of the simple and singular structure by which the savages of Brazil were accustomed to traverse the waters of their coast hundreds of years ago. Although in constant use since the period of discovery, the *jangada* has preserved its aboriginal form and style of construction, and even in this age of improvement is not likely to undergo any change for the better. Properly speaking, it is merely a raft, composed of unhewn logs of a peculiarly light wood, called *pau de jangada*. Trunks of trees are selected, about six inches in diameter, as nearly straight and uniform as possible. These are stripped of bark, sharpened at each end so as to cut the water, and then fastened to each other by three rows of transverse pins. The number of logs used is generally six, although I have seen them composed of three, four, seven, and even twenty logs. These latter are used as lighters for unloading vessels, and are nearly square in form, while the sailing *jangada* is rectangular, and generally about five feet in width by sixteen or twenty in length.”—*Kidder's Brazil*, 1844.

† The term *girau* is entirely technical, being used to designate what in English it would be difficult to name, unless it were called a suspension cabin. Its construction was in this wise: two strong poles were lashed one to each of the stanchions or sticks just mentioned, at the height of eighteen inches, and thence slanted forward till they rested upon the logs near the mast. Across these were fastened boards making a floor. Over-head sticks were bent to support a cover, not dissimilar in appearance to that of a travelling waggon; thus a space was left for the passenger about three feet in height and four in width. A thick rush mat was then spread on the bottom for a bed, and another over the top as an awning, to which, in case of rain, an oilcloth

They sailed by moonlight, with a tolerable breeze from the land, and as these coasting craft pass usually within the reefs which lie off the shore, they seldom encounter a rough sea. He passed the several little ports of Barras Pontas, Pedros Guyanna, Gracire, Pildinhu, &c.

Every village along the coast was adorned with its grove of cocoa trees. Several jangadas engaged in fishing were also passed. The coast presented sandy beaches, now and then intercepted by perpendicular bluffs of red soil, from twenty to sixty feet high, over which, to their verge, grew shrubs. On doubling Cape Blanco, he was landed at Tambuin, only six miles, across the country from Parahiba, whereas the voyage by sea would have been thirty to forty miles round another cape. Not being able to procure horses, he, with some others, walked to the city of Parahiba. He tells us,

“My *companheiros de viagem* having determined to walk up to the city in my company, they proposed to carry my baggage, and divide between themselves the price offered. This suited me, and we started off. I had worn my tall *Paulista* boots on board the jangada, to protect myself from an occasional wave, and I now proved their value on shore; for although we were on a royal road (*estrada real*) we were obliged to wade streams occasionally.

“On leaving the sandy regions of the beach this road became very pleasant, although it was a mere path winding through an almost continuous forest. After the day's confinement within the narrow compass of my *girau*, walking was agreeable. The six miles soon disappeared behind us, and we began entering the suburbs of the city before we were really aware of it. On inquiring for an English gentleman to whom I had a letter, I was directed to his *sítio*, near where I entered the town, and finding him at home, was once more welcomed to the hospitalities, I like to have said, of a fellow countryman, for such truly do Englishmen appear and prove to us when abroad. The *sítio* of Mr. R., which at Bahia would be called a *roça*, and at Rio de Janeiro, a *chacara*, occupies the finest locality in Parahiba. It is situated on the brow of the hill, within the bounds of the upper town, and commands a view of the ocean on the north, the Cape and Fort Cabedello, the mouth and course of the river, up to the shipping before the lower town, including at the same moment a boundless and diversified landscape. The view from this place often reminded me of the far-stretching plains lying west of the Genesee river, as seen particularly from West Avon. Mr. R. was giving especial attention to the cultivation of his grounds, and planting many coffee trees, which, although they grow and produce luxuriantly, are but rarely found in any of the northern provinces. It is a singular circumstance, that coffee is retailed at a higher price in Pernambuco than in the United States. Orange trees suffer very much from the depredations of the ants, being sometimes stripped of their entire foliage in a single night. When a tree has thus been visited three successive times, it does not survive. My friend also had many of these invaluable fruit trees, while his place furnished a vegetable garden, fine springs of water, a yard of cows, and other valuable appendages of rural life, so that he might be truly said to have *rus in urbe*, ‘a farm in the city.’ The house was large and airy, with brick floors, latticed windows, and no ceiling above, save in the parlour.”

CITY OF PARAHIBA.—The harbour of this town is ten miles below, within the bar over which vessels of considerable burden may pass, and smaller vessels could be added, so that all might be kept dry. Thus rigged, my paquete was ready for sea. The only additions needed for purposes of navigation were—first, a setting-pole, to push off from shore; second, a slender mast, and a three-cornered sail to catch the breeze; and third, a long, broad oar, to serve as a rudder. Its crew consisted of two men, the *proeiro* and *patrao*, or the bowsman and steersman.

ascend to the town; the river navigation upwards is performed in rude boats or canoes. Mr. Kidder was in this city during one of the many fêtes. In the evening, he says,—

“The Matrix church, at which the fête was held, was situated near by. It stood at one end of an oblong area. Its front was illuminated by candles hung in broken lanterns around the door, and burning before an image in a niche attached to the cupola. Large fires were blazing in different parts of the area. Around them were groups of blacks, eager to fire off volleys of rockets at appropriate parts of the service that was going on within the church. After the *novena* was finished, all the people sallied out into the campo to witness the fire-works. These commenced about nine o’clock, and continued, I was told, till after midnight.

“Had this been a scene of professed diversion for a company of rude and ignorant Africans, it would have been more sufferable. But professing to be part of a religious service (*honra á Nossa Senhora Padroeira*) performed on God’s holy day, and joined in with enthusiasm by priests, monks, and people, I confess it shocked my feelings in the extreme, and I wished myself almost anywhere rather than witnessing it. Whole families, including mothers and their daughters, were out in the damp night air to gaze upon spectacles partaking of the lowest species of the ludicrous.

“The next day on horseback, accompanied by Mr. R——, we passed through the principal streets of the upper town, in which are the convents, the prison, misericordia, treasury, palace of the governor, and several churches. Thence we passed out on the road leading towards Pernambuco, about three miles, to a large *cruzeiro*, called *cruz das almas*, cross of souls. Here we turned to the right, and descended to the low grounds on the bank of the river, which we followed back to the lower town. The river is very winding, and is not navigable beyond the present anchorage. Canoes go up a long distance, although in the summer season the bed of the river becomes dry beyond twenty leagues. Its prevailing course is north-west, and the town is situated upon the southern bank. One of the finest buildings it contains is a *new trapiche*, or government warehouse. In front of it were three English vessels anchored, loading with cotton and Brazil wood. They were the only vessels in port.”

Extending from the river, two streets contain the principal buildings and commercial establishments of the lower town. Several houses were then in process of erection, rents were high, and landed property had recently been on the rise. The number of inhabitants is less than in the upper town. The elevation of the latter above the water is about 200 feet, and rises rather abruptly. The military arsenal, a large yellow building, is beautifully situated, in a level area, between the two towns. The public edifices of the upper town and lower town, are built in the style usual in the Brazilian cities, and the treasury has in front a high flight of steps by which it is entered. The streets are wide, and paved with a kind of clay slate, much worn. The old *gelousias*, suspended from projecting cornices of thick carved stone, are still seen at Parahiba, which in its general aspect, is like our towns.

Mr. Kidder says, a gentleman just returned from a journey into the interior, described the state of morals and civilisation in the sertoes of this province, and of Rio Grande do Norte, as shocking in the extreme:—

“In those wild and thinly populated regions, where the traveller ferrets out his lonely path through the forests for leagues upon leagues without seeing a habitation, it would be natural to suppose that among the few existing inhabitants there would prevail great fraternal love and harmony, especially in view of their all being bound together in

the unity of the one church, at whose shrines they are all baptised and all confess. Yet, unhappily, intrigue, discord, and murder, seem to be the order of the day. Revenge arrogates to itself the administration of justice, and crime of the deepest dye tramples upon law, and sets its execution at defiance. The most trifling affront is followed by murder, and any man's life may be sold to hireling assassins for a pitiful sum."

Enormous sums were expended in the erection of monasteries in this province. Most of them are now going to decay. Mr. Kidder says, in some which would accommodate 200 monks, there are not more than from four to six. He says—

"The government has shown its discretion by appropriating them to purposes of business and utility wherever it has had occasion. This province, following the example of some others, has given each convent the privilege of matriculating nine novices—hitherto without effect. '*Ninguém quer ser frade*'—'Nobody wishes to be a friar,' is the common remark. Although a life of ease and virtual opulence would thereby be secured, yet such was the public and private dislike of monasticism, that, as yet, no one was willing to share its inglorious spoils."

The monastery of San Bento has only a single tenant, the abbot.

"This order here, as in almost every place where it is established, possesses *engenhos* with slaves and large landed property in the vicinity. The Carmo convent was without an inhabitant, save some troops quartered in it. The prior was recently deceased. He was described as a notorious *bon vivant*, answering fully the idea of a 'jolly fat friar.'

"As I one day passed by the prison, it appeared to be full, both above and below; and, to judge from the loud talking and laughing within, it might have been taken for a place of amusement."

Cotton and sugar are the principal exports of this province. The sugar estates do not extend far towards the interior, on account of the expense of conducting their products to market. What sugar is made beyond the circuit of from fifteen to twenty leagues, is consumed in the form of *rapadura*, as the unclarified article is denominated. It is generally moulded in small cakes. The kind of beer, or spirit, called *caxaça*, is increasing both as regards its manufacture and in the quantity drunk. Speaking of the food of the people, Mr. Kidder says—

"The chief peculiarity which I observed at the table in these regions was a fondness for peppers, which even in Brazil, might be considered extreme. In addition to being bountifully served up in every dish, a pure decoction of this vegetable, in the form of gravy, containing sufficient *fire* to consume an unpractised palate, was deemed an essential dressing.

"*Farinha de mandioca* was much used, with a preparation of oil, pepper, and vinegar, called *farrofa*."

A great many persons, of Indian descent, are seen in Parahiba, although it is often difficult to distinguish them from the Portuguese on the one hand, and the negroes on the other, with both of which races they are amalgamated.

Mr. Kidder returned by land to Pernambuco, and describes the incidents of his journey, from which we condense briefly the following. He praises the horses generally; yet he was cheated in the one provided for him, and was accompanied by a mulatto guide.

"On entering the first piece of woods, we passed two men armed with swords and guns, of whom I had no favourable impressions, although they were talking cheerfully, and did not molest us. Pacifico afterwards told me that they were hunters, on their way to secure game (*bicho do matto*). By and by the sky began to redden, and daylight

soon appeared. I now had an opportunity of observing our condition and appearance. I found myself to be astride of a genuine Rosinante, whose beauties and whose virtues would not have suffered in comparison with those of the original steed of the knight of La Mancha. At the same time, the horse of my man, Pacifico, was a worthy companion.

"Several showers occurred during the morning; and between bridgeless rivers and wet bushes, through which we are constantly passing, my feet became very wet, notwithstanding my high boots. At the distance of four leagues, we passed through an Indian village called *Jacogue*. It had a church, school, and some ninety or one hundred houses built in the ordinary style of mud and thatch. At nine o'clock we arrived at *Terra Cavada*, the name of a *sítio*, to the owner of which I carried a letter. The senhor was not at home, but as it was raining, I did not scruple to accept the kindness of his good lady, who ordered a hammock to be suspended for my use while the horses could eat and rest. The situation was beautiful, and the whole vicinity seemed to be a plantation of *bananeiras*. The house was among the most indifferent objects in sight.

"At eleven o'clock I was ready to resume my journey; but just at that moment I received an intimation from Pacifico that breakfast was preparing, and that we must consequently wait. The repast was straightway served and well relished.

"At twelve o'clock we were again on our way. The rain had ceased, the bushes had become dry, and all nature had put on a more cheering aspect. The face of the country was undulating, sometimes presenting a hill-side covered with *denden* palms, or an opening sprinkled with mangabeira trees; and anon a dense impenetrable forest of varied foliage.

"I frequently saw large *copim* or ant houses, both upon the sides and in the tops of trees. In form they resembled wasps' nests, although they were much larger, and made of earth. In the course of the afternoon I observed a flock of large parrots, and some other birds of gay plumage; also, a monkey passing over the road just before me, upon the connected branches of trees.

"About two o'clock we passed another Indian village, called Alhandra. It might have had a thousand inhabitants, but they were by no means exclusively Indians. The place appeared, in all respects, like the common provoacoes and villas of the country. About five o'clock, P.M., I arrived in sight of Goyanna, a town ancient and celebrated in history. It presents a lovely aspect when seen from a distance, but of that kind which gives a very false idea of the reality. All the Brazilian towns have two peculiarities which add to their external appearance, first, the buildings have a uniform colour, white; second, every eminence or prominent point within them is adorned with a temple of antique structure.

"Goyanna is a *Cabeça de Comarca*, or shire town. It is four leagues from the sea-coast, fourteen from Parahiba, and fifteen from Recife, situated between two small rivers. In it resides a judge of civil, and another of criminal law, who preside at the sessions; also, a prefect of the police. It has a Latin school, two primary schools, a recolhimento, hospital da misericórdia, convent of reformed Carmelites, and five churches.

"On entering the town it proved to be miserable and dirty. Almost the only building which did not appear to have a downward tendency, was a new prison going up. Pacifico conducted me to the best, and perhaps the only establishment in the place in which we could be accommodated for the night.

"The road, often crossing a stream or a canal, lay through a forest for several leagues, being wider than before. The air was fresh and balmy, and numberless birds of plumage and of song enlivened the scene. The soil was sandy, the surface level, and considerable hewn timber was scattered along the road. After proceeding two or three leagues, houses became more frequent, almost all of them exhibiting a bottle or jug at the window, as a sign that ardent spirits could be bought within. I saw frequent flocks of parrots and paroquets. The natural cry of the former resembles that of the common hawk. The day was beautiful. I overtook, and for some time accompanied, a troop of *sertanejos*,* whose horses were loaded with bags of farinha de mandioca and bales of cotton. In this manner nearly all the products of this province and Pernambuco are carried to market.

* The term Sertanejo signifies an inhabitant of the Sertão. It is considered more dignified than *matuto*, and is applied to proprietors in the interior.

I was not a little amused at their manner of mounting. When, on account of a high load, they are unable to spring on at one leap, they take hold of the horse's tail, place their foot upon the gambrel joint, and walk up over the hips of the animal. About noon we came to an engenho denominated *Caga Fogo*, which appeared more as every Brazilian plantation might and ought to appear, than any other I saw in the country. The house was low but large, and neatly whitewashed, with green doors and window-blinds. It was located in the midst of an extended and fertile valley, surrounded with the proper out-houses, flanked on the one side by a splendid field of sugar-cane, and on the other by green pastures, extending to the brow of the neighbouring hills, and sprinkled with grazing herds. Near by was a fine pond, furnishing water-power for the sugar-mill and similar purposes, while its dam answered as a bridge to the stream, having a waste-weir for the surplus water.

The next place, the village of Pasmado, is remarkable for the manufacture and sale of great numbers of the knives (*facas de ponta*) which it is the passion of this people to carry, in a silver-mounted sheath, by their side, and their vice to use too often for desperate purposes.

"We at length paused at Itabatinga, near to Iguarassú, where my guide left his horse, preferring to carry the cloak and portmanteau himself, rather than to attempt getting the jaded animal any further. I tried in vain to get an exchange for mine. In front of the house where we stopped was a cattle fair, which had collected a number of spectators. It seemed to be a branch of the weekly fair that is held at *Pedras de Fogo*, a place seven leagues beyond Goyanna. At that place vast numbers of people collect every Wednesday and Thursday for the general sale, purchase, and interchange of commodities furnished and needed by the *sertoens*. As a means of judging of the concourse of people who assembled there, I was told that sixty or seventy oxen are frequently slaughtered on the spot for their sustenance.

"Iguarassú is located upon an elevation, at the foot of which flows a small river of the same name, crossed by an ancient but very good stone bridge. It is a league and a half from the sea coast, and six leagues from Pernambuco. It is at present a villa, has a primary school, a convent of Antoninos, recolhimento, misericordia, prison, town-house, mother church, and four hermidas, or filial churches. It has the air of antiquity, and is on the decline, having but little business. I observed one temple with its roof fallen in.

"Soon after passing Iguarassú, I overtook a troop of a dozen horsemen; several blacks were riding forward, and their masters in the rear. In front of all was a drove of cattle, which I supposed to belong to the party, but which it appeared did not, being soon left behind. I ascertained that the cavalcade was from Assú, in the province of Rio Grande do Norte, eighty leagues distant, and on its way to Pernambuco to purchase goods.

"During the several hours we rode in company, the moral condition, and the civil relations and prospects, both of Brazil and the United States, were thoroughly discussed. We had, in the meant time been travelling over the table lands, where engenhos and habitations of different kinds were somewhat frequent amid a succession of clayey hills. At length the Rio Grandenses stopped for the night, and I had yet three leagues between me and the Recife. Notwithstanding a ride of nearly fifty miles since morning, my Rosinante still kept upon his legs. This was nearly all I could say in the beginning; but it was now evident that, notwithstanding his appearance, his capacities for a *long run* were second to those of but few horses in the country.

"Just before dark I passed the *correio de governo*, or government mail, which was a species of leathern trunk, strapped on the back of an Indian on foot. This is the usual method of conveying the mails in these regions; and, in addition to that of the government, there is a weekly post of the same description between Pernambuco and Parahiba, supported by the merchants. We at length arrived in Olinda."

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF PARAHIBA.

EXPORTS from the Province of Parahiba during the Year, terminated December, 31, 1844, together with their estimated Value in Sterling at the place and time of Shipment.

P O R T S.	C O T T O N.					V A L U E.			S U G A R.		
	bags.	tons.	cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	£	s.	d.	cases.	barrels.	bags.
Liverpool	23,111	1963	18	3	16	80,553	19	2	148	38	1,750
Falmouth.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	309	153	6,766
Gibraltar.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,000
Hamburg.....	61	5	3	1	18	211	2	11	..	..	..
Trieste.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	381	56	9,580
Total.....	23,172	1969	2	1	6	80,765	2	1	838	247	20,096

IMPORTS—continued.

P O R T S.	S U G A R.				V A L U E.			H I D E S.	V A L U E.		
	tons.	cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	£	s.	d.	number.	£	s.	d.
Liverpool	220	10	2	8	1,658	12	11	17,183	7517	10	0
Falmouth.....	734	2	2	8	10,590	13	9	..	..	..	..
Gibraltar.....	218	13	..	16	3,970	15	4	..	..	..	..
Hamburg.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,000	1312	10	0
Trieste.....	961	8	3	12	17,272	18	2	400	175	0	0
Total.....	2134	15	..	16	33,493	0	2	20,583	9005	0	0

N.B.—In addition to the above, a considerable quantity of specie and sugar, as also a few bags of cotton, have been smuggled with the connivance of the Custom-house officers, who receive half the amount of which the revenue is thus defrauded.

Average rate of exchange during the year, 9600 reis per pound sterling.

SHOWING the Amount of Produce Exported from Parahiba do Norte, during the Year ended December 31, 1844, to British Ports in British Bottoms; ditto to Foreign Ports in British Bottoms; and lastly, to Foreign Ports in Foreign Bottoms.

P O R T S.	S U G A R.				V A L U E.			C O T T O N.	V A L U E.			H I D E S.	V A L U E.		
	tons.	cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	£	s.	d.	bags.	£	s.	d.	number.	£	s.	d.
To British ports in British bottoms	1173	6	1	4	16,220	2	0	23,111	80,553	19	2	17,183	7,517	10	0
To foreign ports in British bottoms.....	244	19	1	20	4,458	9	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
To foreign ports in foreign bottoms.....	716	9	1	20	12,814	8	8	61	211	2	11	3,400	1,487	10	0
Total.....	2134	15	..	16	33,493	0	2	23,172	80,765	2	1	20,583	9,005	0	0

TONNAGE Employed in the Export Trade of Parahiba do Norte during the Year, terminated December 31, 1844.

N A T I O N S.	Number of Vessels.	Number of Crews.	Tonnage.	All in ballast on entering, with the exception of two British vessels, which brought one 300 and the other 280 barrels of cod-fish, value 720 <i>l</i> .
British.....	24	318	6037	..
Austrian.....	2	24	519	..
Hamburgese.....	1	5	73	..
Total.....	27	347	6629	..

Gross Return of British and Foreign Trade at the principal Ports within the Consulate of Parahiba during the Year ending December 31, 1844.

PORT OF PARAHIBA.

N A T I O N .	A R R I V E D.				D E P A R T E D.			
	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Crew.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Crew.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
British.....	23	5637	303	£ 720	24	6037	318	£ 103,915
Austrian.....	2	519	24	..	2	519	24	12,814
Hamburgese	1	73	5	..	1	73	5	1,709
Total.....	26	6229	332	720	27	6629	347	118,438

CHAPTER IX.

PROVINCES OF PERNAMBUCO AND ALAGOAS.

THE province of Pernambuco has constituted one, if not the most important, part of the Brazilian empire since the period of the Dutch conquest. It abounds with many good harbours, and the soil is very generally fertile. Its capital has been called the Tripoli of America.

The province of Pernambuco, as reduced by the separation of Alagoas, is divided into thirteen comarcas, viz., Recife, Cabo, Rio Formoso, San Antao, Bonito, Limociro, Nazareth, Pua d'Alho, Goyanna, Brejo, Garanhuns, Flores, and Boa Vista ; the free population of the whole is stated by Mr. Cowper to amount to 600,020 souls (exclusive of foreigners) ; the basis of this calculation is the census taken in 1842, the period of the election of the legislative assembly of 1846, which gave for the whole province, 120,004 hearths, and upon the calculation made of there being five persons to each hearth : viz., the husband, wife, two children, and one domestic. This last census, according to the best informed persons, is as nearly exact as can be ascertained. The number of slaves is by some calculated to exceed by two-thirds, the free population, others increase this estimate, but the former proportion may approximate more closely to the true number. The greater portion of the slaves are employed in the 512 sugar plantations, which this province contains, and in about 200 small engenhos in the western comarcas, where the coarser kind of sugar is manufactured for the consumption of the inhabitants of the *Sertos* (or mountainous region), in the provinces of Piauhv, Ceara, &c. The other predial slaves are employed in the cultivation of cotton, mandioca, vegetables, &c. In the comarca of the Recife, which possesses many extensive plantations of sugar-cane; the cultivation of farinha, vegetables, fruit, &c., for the consumption of the Recife and Olinda, with their suburbs, forms a gainful pursuit to the agricultural people.* The island of Itamaraca, in this comarca, is remarkably fertile, producing tropical vegetables of every description, and is celebrated for the superior flavour of its grapes and other fruits.†

* Mr. Cowper's reports.

† Mr. Kidder revisited this island in 1842 ; his sketches are very graphic, and can ably afford extracts. He says—

“ My passage to the island had been engaged by a friend ; and about noon of a fine day, I was hurried to embark on board the canoe, San Bernardo, with the intelligence that the tide having begun to flow, now furnished the most favourable opportunity for sailing. The wind was blowing almost a gale, and the idea of going to sea in a canoe did not seem very inviting. But on entering the craft all my apprehensions subsided. I found it not less than seven feet wide by about twenty-five in length ; yet it had been formed out of a single tree, and was much shorter than some others to be found on the same coast. These canoes are worth from 500 to 1200 milreis

The comarcas of Cabo and Rio Formoso possess the greatest number of sugar engenhos, having a considerable extent of sea-coast, and many rivers with tributary streams. The facility of transporting the produce to the Recife, offers an advantage, to the proprietors of the plantations, of much importance. In the latter comarca is the small town of Una, so notorious by the situation of its small but secure harbour, in which the slave-vessels may with safety land their

each. The one in question was valued at 800 milreis. It had a short deck at each end, forming beneath, what I will call the fore and after cabins, midships being entirely open for cargo. This canoe carried an immense triangular sail and a jib, and had on each side an *embono*, or buoy, made of two large trunks of the jangada wood fastened together, and lashed to the upper edge to prevent capsizing. It was navigated by three men. The captain was a mulatto, and his two men were negroes. They carried, besides myself, two watermen as passengers. In going out, we passed alongside the *Registo*, to exhibit the despatch of the vessel.

"We immediately bore away to the north, taking no notice of reefs or shallows, presuming they would not interfere with the slight draught of the canoe. There seemed to prevail the greatest harmony between the captain and his men, without any of those troublesome ideas of rank and authority which commonly prevail on salt water. After satisfying my curiosity about the mode of navigation, and enjoying the fine views furnished as we were standing off Olinda Point, I took undisputed possession of the after-cabin, and extended myself for a nap. The swell was very heavy, as we were in shoal water, and off extreme points of land; nevertheless, our craft being light, shipped but little water, and we rode gaily over the surges. When I afterwards arose we were off *Pau amarello*, a fort and village of the same name, both distinguished in the history of the country. The island to which we were bound was just in sight from the top of the wave. About four o'clock we landed at the *Pilar a povoação* (settlement), so called after a church of *Nossa Senhora do pilar*, having completed the voyage of eight leagues in four hours. The whole coast in this part of the island is planted with cocoa-nut trees, in the shade of which are clustered a great number of huts and houses. I took a turn through the village. I found it built without the least regularity along paths winding in different directions. The church was rather an ancient building, with heavy walls, and a deserted aspect. Opposite, stood the theatre, apparently enjoying a much greater degree of prosperity. The houses generally appeared on the outside as if built entirely of the cocoa-palm leaf, but, in fact, this material only covered the sides, in the same style as thatch did the roofs."

He says of a senhor's house—"This domicile was of rather a superior order for the place, being built of strong taipa walls, whitewashed without, and having a good tiled roof. It had two front rooms, and more or less in rear, with an enclosure of a few rods of ground for a garden. Senhor M. was a man of about fifty years, short, thick set, and pleasant, although decidedly homespun in his manners. His family consisted of a wife, a daughter, and five grandchildren. The daughter, about a year previous, had been left a widow, and had returned to the paternal roof with her children. These children were pretty, and more than ordinarily intelligent in their appearance. After supper, which consisted of hard biscuit and butter, with tea, a *rede* (a hammock) was suspended for me from rings at opposite corners of the front room. This was the first time I had slept in one of these swinging beds, which are the true fashion of the country.

"*Fisheries*.—The fish-pen (*curral de peixe*), is made by stakes driven into the sandy bottom. Small rods are attached to the stakes by means of cross pieces and withes, and brought so close to each other as to prevent the passage of any but the smallest fishes. The rows of stakes generally commence at the Praya, and run in a right line into the sea, some ten, twenty, or thirty rods, according to the depth of water, and thence describe an enclosure, in some form between a square and circle, with openings towards the land. Into these the fish run with the ebb-tide, and are then easily taken in a net. The privilege of building these curraes is licensed by government. Sometimes a place is found for them a long way out from shore, and one or two that I saw appeared to be on the reef itself, or some branch of it, not less than half a league distant. Being constructed of stakes of equal length, some of them appear very well at a distance, and not unlike fortifications. A great profit is generally realised by their proprietors, and occasionally 200 or 300 milreis per day. When, however, their products fail, it is a public calamity to the community of islanders and coast residents, whose principal articles of diet are fish and the cocoa-nut.

"There are several churches in the island, and very many of the houses have their saint or tutelary deity.

"On the second day, having engaged a horse for riding, I proceeded about two miles along the southern shore, alternately in paths among the cabins, and upon the hard white sand of the beach. The dwellings extended with more or less regularity the whole distance, while I had the day

unhappy cargoes. The municipality of Sireinhaem is famed for its fruitful soil, the small river of the same name running through the valley irrigates the land, and adds to its fertility, especially during the dry seasons. In the comarcas of Nazareth and Puo-d'Alho are some sugar engenhos, many cotton plantations, and extensive fields of farinha de mandioca. The comarcas of Bonito and Limociro have a few sugar estates; in the latter, the cultivation of cotton is principally attended to. The comarca of Goianna, named from the town of that name, formerly a city of much importance, has a considerable number of large sugar engenhos; most of them have the advantage of water-conveyance by means of the River Goianna, at whose mouth is the small port of Catuama, another favourite spot at which the slave-merchants order their vessels to disembark their cargoes. At Pedras de Frego, situated at the line of division between this comarca and Parahiba, is held the greatest cattle-fair in this or the adjoining provinces; the town is, in consequence, rising in importance. The sertão of the province comprises an extent, from north to south, of fifty leagues, and 147 leagues from east to west. Many parts of the interior, far west, were little known till the year 1815, since which period, it has increased in wealth and prosperity. The Sertenagos are a fine muscular race; sober, steady, honest, and indefatigable in their occupations, either attending to their horses and cattle, of which they have considerable herds, or occupied in their cotton, or vegetable

before found them in the same manner a mile and a half to the westward. Thus it may be said, that the whole eastern shore of Itamaraca is covered with habitations, embowered in the shade of one continuous cocoa-grove.

"Nothing could be at once more useful and ornamental than these magnificent palms. They are planted in regular lines, and grow to a nearly uniform height. Their trunks are slender and limbless, marked only by regular scars left in their growth, as one set of deciduous leaves falls off, yielding the precedence to another. Quite in their lofty top the fruit is clustered. The leaves, though simple and plume-like in form, are majestic in size. They stretch in various curves from the common centre of each tree-top, so as to unite their extremities, and form an umbrageous canopy so dense as to be scarcely penetrated by the rays of a vertical sun. These bowers are ever-green, and whether illuminated by sun, moon, or star-light, they shed down by varying reflections a sombre brilliancy, calculated to chasten the feelings and soothe the heart. Throughout all this vast arena the grass grows wild, and the turf is intersected by narrow, winding paths, exhibiting a white sandy bottom beneath. Here the mild air of the grove is freshened by an almost unceasing breeze from the sea, while he who enjoys it can look out upon a boundless expanse of the ocean, heaving its restless tide, and breaking into foam over the coral reefs which girt the island. The strip of the shore planted with coqueiros, varies from forty to one hundred rods in width. Beyond this, the prevailing tree is the *cajueiro*, or cashew, which, together with the vine, the mangueira, and other trees, produces fruit in great abundance and perfection.

"It was the lamentation of every one I met, and especially of mine host and hostess, that I was not there in the summer, the season of fruit.

"Many remarks might be made respecting this interesting island. I shall only add a few on the state of society. The great majority of the inhabitants are watermen, and employed more or less upon the fisheries. They seem to abandon themselves very much to the luck of their profession, and to have very little idea of regular and persevering industry. What little labour the men perform on shore is generally done mornings and evenings. After the sun's rays begin to be felt seriously, they may be seen gathering into groups for conversation, or stretching themselves out in the shade of their trees and houses for repose. The females seem to be more regularly employed, and most of them add to the very simple routine of their domestic duties an almost uninterrupted knitting of thread lace. A number of the men own little plots of ground occupied by their hut and a few cocoa-nut-trees; others rent their tenements of a reserved proprietor, at two milreis per month."

plantations. This district is comprised in the comarcas of Brejo, Garanhuns, Flores, and Boa Vista: in the comarca of Brejo the most valuable quality of Brazil cotton is produced; yet the distance, fifty leagues, by land from the Recife, the port of shipment, occasions a serious expense. The products of these districts—cotton, hides, &c.—are carried to the Recife on horses: each animal laden with two bags of cotton, weighing four to five arrobas, or 150 lbs. each bag; hides and other articles in proportionate weight; the valleys in the other comarcas of the *sertao* are very fertile; Enci is the most distant, being 180 leagues west-north-west from the Recife. This extensive district is, in general, visited septennially by drought, the earth is then parched up, the rivers and the streams are dry, and sustenance for man or beast is with difficulty obtained.

The sudden change of temperature common in other climates, is rare in Pernambuco, especially during the summer months, at which period the weather is delightful:—in the rainy season, some days occur when the atmosphere is charged with haze and mist, rendering the sun invisible: some minutes before the rain falls the clouds descend, thick and black; the air is oppressively close, the heaving of the sea is suspended, and a gloomy calmness prevails,—sure prognostics of the approaching rain, which shortly pours down in torrents, refreshing the parched earth, and fertilizing the soil.

The provincial government has for the last seven years, effected improvements of the principal roads to the interior; opening one to San Antonio, and the neighbouring towns south-west, is proceeding rapidly. On this road, a long and high suspension bridge has been constructed across the valley of a turbulent river; the first bridge of the kind in the empire. The roads and bridges to the southward comarcas, are also attended to, and considerable sums were expended in their repairs; various improvements are also taking place in the city of Pernambuco, not only in adorning it, but also rendering it more salubrious; a company has been formed to convey purer water into it than the inhabitants have been accustomed to drink, by underground pipes, from an exhaustless spring at Ipopucas, seven miles distant, and introduced into every quarter of the city. In various parts, fountains are to be erected for general use and public ornament, and it is in contemplation to supply each dwelling with water by means of pipes. This city is now enabled to maintain its rank in the empire, as the third of importance, and as the capital of a province so fertile and magnificent as Pernambuco: the products of which exported during the last five years, viz., 1840 to the end of 1844, through the Recife, were,—

Sugar to foreign ports, average each year	tons.
To ports in Brazil	30,068
	4,109
Total	34,177

The exports of cotton to foreign ports, averaged 32,279 bags, of about

160 lbs. each; and that of hides, the average number, exported from the province, was 72,500.

There are, however, drawbacks on the progress of agricultural industry in this province. In the interior, the spirit and influence of practices of feudal origin prevail; private animosities, aggravated by political feelings, enrage families, until vengeance is satiated by the *removal* of the offending party. Even in the towns these diabolical passions occasion strife and wickedness.

The following interesting account of the sugar plantations or *engenhos* of Pernambuco was, in 1846, furnished to the British consul by M. A. de Mornay, a gentleman, who, from his occupation as a civil engineer, has frequent opportunities of observation:—

“In the province of Pernambuco, the sugar *engenhos* are situated almost altogether along the coast; and one is surprised in travelling through the country to find such a complete chain of them, not only along the main roads, or rather tracks, but along numberless cross-tracks, which cut the land in all directions, and extend as far as twenty or thirty miles inland. Immediately behind the land occupied by the *engenhos*, is a strip of land, varying very much in width, averaging about ten leagues, or thirty miles. The soil is similar to that of the sugar districts, and it is covered with a luxuriant forest of fine timber trees. Behind this again, is the country called the *Sertao*, or *Catinga*, where the cotton is grown, and which supplies all the cattle and horses for the use of the *engenhos*, and for general consumption along the coasts. There are, however, but two natural divisions in the soil and climate of the province. The land which lies along the coast, together with the forest land, forms one division; and the other is the *Sertao*, which comprises the whole of the interior. The soil of the former is a rich clay, or fine loam, exceedingly fertile, abounding in small rivulets and springs, and refreshed with rain at intervals during the dry season, and where it has not been cut away for cultivation, densely covered with wood. The soil of the latter is compact and sandy, and the climate very dry, the trees appear stunted, and are very thinly scattered over the ground; it is, however, very productive after the heavy rains of winter have fallen.

“The *Sertanejos* chiefly plant Indian corn, and a kind of kidney bean, which form their principal food. It sometimes happens in the *sertao* that a winter passes without rain falling, and sometimes two or three dry years follow each other, in which case the inhabitants suffer greatly from hunger and thirst, and whole families die of starvation, and sometimes in procuring food in the wood, they die of eating some poisonous root, and this is not of unfrequent occurrence. These *seccas* are said to occur once in about ten years. The rivers always dry up in the summer, and for water during that season they depend upon the rains of winter, which are collected in large artificial ponds; or, if in the neighbourhood of a considerable river, they dig wells in the dry bed. The population may be said to

be divided into two distinct bodies, and the distinction is not made between the white and black, but between the slave population and the free; very little distinction being made on account of colour. The reason probably is, that there are few families who are not tainted more or less with a mixture of negro blood. The free population of the sugar district is divided into three classes, the *Senhor d'Engenho*, the *Lavrador*, and the *Morador*. The *Senhor d'Engenho* is the owner of the land, the mill, &c., and he is also the sugar manufacturer; he plants the chief part of the cane himself, but as he can always make more sugar than his own plantations will produce, he invites agriculturists who have a few slaves, to live on the lands of the *engenho*, for the purpose of planting cane, to be ground at the mill, and made into sugar, half of which is delivered over to the *Lavrador*, the other being kept as his own share. There are also *Senhores d'Engenho* who do not possess the land; they erect the dwelling-house, mill, &c., and work the land for a certain number of years, generally eight to twelve; at the end of that time all the buildings, works, &c., belong to the owner of the land, and they are considered sufficiently remunerated for the use of the soil. The *Lavrador* is the cane planter who lives on the land of the *Senhor d'Engenho*, land and house-rent free. As well as cane, he is allowed to plant mandioca, and any thing for his own consumption. He delivers his cane at the mill, and there receives his moiety of the sugar. That of *Lavrador* is considered quite a gentlemanly employment, and men of good family, who do not possess, or who have not the means of working an *engenho*, think it no degradation to follow it. There are, however, *Lavradores* of all grades, in colour and respectability; some plant very extensively their plantations, producing as much as fifty tons of sugar yearly, while those of others will produce no more than one or two tons.

"The *Morador* is a kind of tenant at will, he also pays no rent, but builds his own hut or shed. Both the *Lavrador* and the *Morador* are so far dependent on the *Senhor d'Engenho*, that in the elections they are completely controlled by him; but on those estates where the owner has some government appointment (generally in the police), or has acquired a power independent of the government, by allowing to live on his estates, and protecting assassins and other bad characters. The *Morador*, if one of these protected criminals, is completely in the power of the *Senhor d'Engenho*, and ready to obey him in every thing, even in the commission of the most atrocious crime.

"The social condition of the population in the sugar district is very peculiar, for with a very liberal constitution, its actual state makes it appear to be governed on the feudal system. With all the machinery of the law apparently in force, it is in reality very little respected by the majority, the lower orders only fearing the *Senhor d'Engenho* on whose estate they live, and the *Senhor d'Engenho* only fearing one more powerful than himself. It is usual for a man after

committing a murder to go to a Senhor d'Engenho and beg his protection, and unless he has private reasons for not doing so, he is always ready to padrinhar, '*godfather*' the criminal, thus adding to his power.

"A rough estimate of the number of engenhos in the province gives about 600, and they occupy about an equal number of square leagues, or one square league each engenho. One square league of land is ample for four engenhos, so that this belt of land now occupied by sugar establishments, is capable of receiving four times its present number, and if the whole of the land suitable to the growth of cane were put under cultivation, eight times the number might very well exist. Each engenho produces on an average fifty-five cases of clayed sugar annually, fifty of white, and five of brown, or moscovado, which are equal to forty-two tons of white, and four and one quarter tons of brown, or 24,800 tons of white, and 2550 tons of brown, for the entire produce of the province (this is a very low estimate). Each engenho, with sufficient hands, and with their present rude mode of cultivation, might produce at the very least, thrice as much as at present, and if the whole of the land suitable to the growth of the sugar-cane were put under cultivation, the province would yield sixteen times what it does at present, or 396,800 tons of white, and 40,800 tons of moscovado.

"The number of slaves is various on different engenhos, but the average may be taken at thirty for field blacks, and ten for house and other blacks, and the average number of blacks belonging to the Lavradores about twelve, making fifty-two, the average number on each engenho, or 31,200 for the entire black population in the sugar district, not including those in the capital or villages. To work an engenho effectively near the capital, forty slaves are considered a fair number, but far in the country, if the land be well wooded, twenty-five blacks will produce an equal effect, on account of the facility of procuring fuel and wood for fencing, and the land being more productive. There are engenhos in the virgin forests with as few as fifteen field blacks, and even less; the soil there is so exceedingly productive, hence the possibility of working an engenho with so few hands. There are some few engenhos with as many as 150 slaves, but the quantity of sugar they make is not in proportion to the number of hands, they are, however, kept in much better order, and the slaves are in much better condition. The greater number of engenhos are very deficient in slaves, and the consequence is, that much work, not of immediate necessity for the production of a large quantity of sugar, is left undone, or very badly done, or else the slaves are very much over-worked. There is a spirit of emulation among the Senhores d'Engenho to make a large quantity of sugar with a small number of blacks, but instead of accomplishing this by the economisation of labour and good management, it is generally done by driving the slaves at their work to the very extent of their strength, and even beyond it. This forced work they cannot resist many

years; they become thin and languid, their skin dry and scurvy, and of a dark slate colour, instead of the polished black of a healthy negro; and in those engenhos where the slaves are in this state, there are always several who have what is called the 'vicio,' or vice of eating earth. It is a generally received opinion that this vice or desire to eat earth is wilful on the part of the slave, and persisted in, in spite of severe floggings, for the purpose of putting an end to his already nearly worn-out existence; it is, however, more probably the consequence of a state of health brought on by over-work, bad food, and general ill-treatment; the appearance of a slave who eats earth is a yellow skin, a white fur on the tongue, and a dropsical appearance, particularly about the eyes; and the vice of eating earth is the effect and not the cause of the disease; this disease is not confined altogether to the slave population, free children among the poorer class are frequently met with, suffering from the same malady.

"A child who eats earth is considered a reproach to his family, and he is said to be instigated by the devil, all possible means are tried to prevent his getting at any earthy substance, but all their care avails nothing, he continues in the same state, the devil, as they say, always finding means to supply him, he will sometimes eat the earthen water-jars.

"The hours of field labour during the season that the engenhos are not at work, are from six in the morning until six at night, and at most engenhos they give them work about the establishment before that hour in the morning and after it at night, this work they call 'kinginggoo;' the length of the 'kinginggoo' varies according to the disposition of the master, it very commonly continues from four to six in the morning, and from six to ten at night, and on some occasions until midnight; during the season of the crop, which lasts from September to February or March, besides their usual day labour, from six in the morning until six in the evening, they are divided into two gangs to work in the mill during the night, one gang working from six until midnight, and the other from midnight until six in the morning; half an hour is allowed them in the morning for breakfast, and two hours in the middle of the day to take rest and food, except during the months of grinding, when they take their food how they best can. Their work at this season is very hard, and it is common to see them alternately sleeping and waking, without interfering with their occupations; the boys in the 'manjara' (a seat behind the horses of a cattle mill), fearing to be observed, get into the habit of sleeping for a second of time only, and of rousing themselves sufficiently to whip the horses, when they have another nap no longer than the first; the black who carries away the cane trash from the mill, may often be observed taking a similar nap in the act of stooping to join the ends of the cane leaves round his bundle: and it appears that they derive rest from these continual momentary snatches of sleep during their night's labour. Some masters allow the Sundays, and one or two holidays in the year; but during the time of

sugar-making very few allow them Sunday. The blacks are generally insufficiently clothed; the men are allowed every year a pair of coarse cotton drawers, a shirt, and generally a hat also, and a piece of red baize to cover themselves at night; the women have a similar allowance: their food consists of two pounds of dried beef, called 'carne de siera,' per week, and a measure of farinha de mandioca every day, in quantity being about as much as would fill a wine-bottle; the dried beef is very salt, and comes from Rio Grande do Sul. The general mode of cooking it is, by throwing it on the hot embers until it is burnt outside; this is often the only food of the slave during the whole year, except, perhaps, fresh beef on Christmas Day; the food is sometimes varied by giving them salted cod-fish; to this sameness of salt food, added to hard work, may be attributed many of the bad diseases of the skin, to which they are subject; a slight scratch, particularly in the legs and feet, often turns into the most obstinate sore. On those engenhos, where the slaves are not over-worked, a number of Creoles will be seen, and the general appearance of the blacks, healthy and cheerful, while on the other the young blacks are all of new importation, and a considerable portion of the profits of the owner must go yearly in purchasing slaves to supply the place of those who die. When they are very well treated, the stock is kept up by those bred upon the estate. If there were not, however, a constant supply from the coast of Africa, the slave population would rapidly diminish, and many sugar engenhos, in a very few years, would be unable to continue their operations. Many Senhors d'Engenho already find their 'fabricas' decreasing yearly on account of the difficulty of procuring, and consequent high price of new blacks. A strong healthy field black is now worth as much as 60*l.* or 70*l.* sterling: before the slave treaty he could be bought for 25*l.* sterling.

"In a general view of the agriculture of this province it will be seen that nature is very little assisted in her labour; in Pernambuco it is true that the earth is tilled, planted, and cleared upon the best estates in an efficient manner, but the choice of lands and the change of crops, manuring, the formation of roads and bridges from the plantations to the mills, are very little attended to. In Alagoas this is in a still more backward state; ploughs, and other European implements of husbandry are unknown there, and indeed they are not much used in Pernambuco; I have only seen one plough in operation, notwithstanding that the tillage of the ground would be no less benefited here by their use than that of Europe; the hoe is the favourite agricultural implement: in planting, it is the spade and plough, in cleaning, the rake and harrow, and cotton, sugar, mandioca, maize, and all the other productions owe their existence to it."

Pasturage is in its wild state, and confined chiefly to the "catinga," where the grass grows spontaneously; in the *matto* and *costa*, grass is grown from seed, but scarcely for pasture, as the cattle are not allowed to graze upon it, but cut, and then carried for food to cattle-sheds and stables; the cattle of the poorer

classes, in the wooded country and along the shores, are excluded from the Capim da Planta, or sown grass, by fences, and find very precarious sustenance; little attention is paid to the breeding of cattle in respect of crossing and improving the stock, the horses are chiefly Spanish barbs turned out with the mares to graze in the "catinga," almost in a wild state; the colts of this breed are worked young, and often fed on "caxaça," or sugar skimmings, and molasses, by which they soon lose their teeth, and then become nearly unfit for service. They are usually about twelve hands high, and are rather showy little horses. The horned cattle yield beef of good quality during the rainy season; but after drought it is of an inferior description. The milch cows, as such, are of little value, at least upon the coast; the sheep are long-legged, with hair rather than wool, but the mutton is considered excellent.

The manufactures of the province are almost entirely domestic or family work. In the Sertao the leather dresses of the Sertanejas, "redes," or hammocks, and a coarse, but not ugly, sort of cotton cloth is made, never dyed. This cloth resembles the shepherds' plaid of Scotland and the north of England, and is used for trowsers. In the Matto those knives are manufactured, which are carried by every one, and used indifferently for all purposes, from eating their dinners to stabbing their neighbours. On the coast, lace is made of several descriptions; the most general is not unlike *point lace*, and considering the time occupied in its production, it is sold at a low price. A pretty work, too, peculiar to Brazil is also manufactured upon the coast, namely, "Lavarinha." Coarse cotton bags for sugar are also made at almost all the engenhos, in the houses of the poor: there is no large manufacturing establishment in this part of Brazil, except an English iron foundry in the capital, and two other English ones in progress.

PERNAMBUCO, or, as this city is more commonly called in the country, the *Recife*, or the Reef, is situated close to the Atlantic coast, in 8 deg. 6 min. south latitude, and 35 deg. 1 min. west longitude. Its free population, including the suburbs, is stated by the British consul, in 1845, to amount to 74,310 inhabitants, and the adjoining town of Olinda has 17,824, so that the total number of free inhabitants in these towns, exclusive of slaves, is 92,134, among whom are enumerated 160 French, 125 English, and 300 Germans, including 200 German labourers, who arrived under contract for the service of the provincial government. Of United States' citizens, the numbers seldom exceed ten or twelve.

The city of Pernambuco and its suburbs are divided into three parishes; within the town are those of San Pedro de Gonsalves, or Recife, San Antonio, and Boa Vista. These three contain seventeen churches, and also a British chapel; two monasteries, three recolhimentos, or asylums for girls, six hospitals (public and private), a theatre, a government palace, custom-house, prison, marine and military arsenals, and three suits of barracks for troops. Its institutions for public instruction are a lyceum, two Latin, and seven primary schools. It has

three printing-presses, publishing two daily newspapers and three other periodicals, besides occasional volumes of books. Its streets are paved in part, and illuminated by 360 lamps. Four old fortresses—the Picáo, on the extremity of the reef; the Brum and the Buracco, on the sandy shore towards Olinda; and Cinco Pontas, or the Pentagon, on the southern front of the city.

The appearance of Pernambuco, when seen from the water is peculiar; its site is flat, and but little elevated above the level of the sea. The white high buildings erected on the praya, seem to rise from the ocean. Inseparable from this view of Pernambuco is that of Olinda, on a bold and picturesque hill two miles north. Its natural appearance caused Duarte Coelho as he arrived on the coast in 1530, to exclaim, “*O linda situaçao para se funda uma villa!*”—“O beautiful site for a town!” His exclamation was immortalised by being used, in part, to furnish a name.

Olinda continued the capital of the province for about 200 years; but, at length, owing to its situation not being favourable for commerce, from being too far from the Recife, which forms the only harbour near; a town gradually arose up near the Recife, by which name it was called. Mr. Kidder says—

“Many of the houses of Pernambuco are built in a style unknown in other parts of Brazil. That occupied by Mr. Ray, United States’ consul, stood fronting the water-side. Its description may serve as a specimen of the style referred to. It was six stories high. The first, or ground-floor, was denominated the armazem, and was occupied by male-servants at night; the second furnished apartments for the counting-room, consulate, &c.; the third and fourth for parlours and lodging-rooms; the fifth for dining-rooms; and the sixth for a kitchen. Readers of domestic habits, will perceive that one special advantage of having a kitchen located in the attic, arises from the upward tendency of the smoke and effluvia universally produced by culinary operations. A disadvantage, however, inseparable from the arrangement, is the necessity of conveying various heavy articles up so many flights of stairs. Water might be mentioned for example, which, in the absence of all mechanical contrivances for such an object, was carried up on the heads of negroes. Surmounting the sixth story, and constituting in one sense the seventh, was a splendid observatory, glazed above and on all sides.

“The prospect from this observatory was extended and interesting in the extreme. It was just such a place as the stranger should always seek in order to receive correct impressions of the locality and environs of the city. His gaze from such an elevation will not fail to rest with interest upon the broad bay of Pernambuco, stretching with a moderate, but regular incurvation of the coast, between the promontory of Olinda and Cape St. Augustine, thirty miles below. This bay is generally adorned with a great number of *jangadas*, which, with their broad latine sails, make no mean appearance. Besides the commerce of the port itself, vessels often appear in the offing bound on distant voyages, both north and south. No port is more easy of access. A vessel bound to either the Indian or the Pacific Ocean, or on her passage homeward to either the United States or Europe, may, with but a slight deviation from her best course, put into Pernambuco. She may come to an anchor in the Lameirão, or outer harbour, and hold communication with the shore, either to obtain advices or refreshments, and resume her voyage at pleasure, without becoming subject to port charges. This is very convenient for whaling ships and South Sea traders, which accordingly make this port a great rendezvous. In order to discharge or receive their cargoes, they are required to come within the reef, conform to usual port regulations.”

Ships of war seldom remain long here. None of large draught can pass the

bar, and those that can are required to deposit their powder at the fort. The strong winds, and heavy roll of the sea, are frequently sufficient to part the strongest cables. The commercial shipping is under full view from the observatory, yet it is too near at hand, and too densely crowded together, to make an imposing appearance.

OLINDA, built upon a hill, has white houses and massive churches with luxuriant foliage interspersed amongst them, in which those edifices on the hill-side seem to be partially buried. From this point a line of highlands sweeps inward, terminating at Cape St. Augustine, and forming a semicircular *reconcave*, analogous to that of Bahia. The summit of the highlands is crowned with green forests and foliage.

“Indeed,” says Mr. Kidder, “from the outermost range of vision to the very precincts of the city, throughout the extended plain, circumscribed by five-sixths of the imagined arc, scarcely an opening appears to the eye, although, in fact, the country overlooked is populous and cultivated. Numbers of buildings also, within the suburbs of the city, are overtowered, and wholly or partially hid by lofty palms, mangueiras, cajueiros, and other trees. The interval between Recife and Olinda is in striking contrast to this appearance. It is a perfectly barren bank of sand, a narrow beach, upon one side of which the ocean breaks, while, on the other side, only a few rods distant and nearly parallel, runs a branch of the Beberibe River. This stream is navigable to boats as far as Olinda, and forms the principal channel of communication with that place, although the beach may be considered a species of turnpike.”

At a distance of from one-fourth to half a mile from the shore is the bank of rocks already mentioned as extending along a great extent of the northern coast of Brazil. Its top is scarcely visible at high water, being then covered with a surf which dashes over it. At low water it is left dry, like an artificial wall, with a surface sufficiently even to form a promenade rising out of the sea. It is from two to five rods in breadth. Its edges are a little worn and fractured, but both its sides are perpendicular to a great depth. The rock, in its external appearance, is of a dark brown colour. When broken, it is found to be composed of a very hard species of yellow sandstone, in which numerous bivalves are embedded in a state of complete preservation. At several points deep winding fissures extend through a portion of the reef, but in general its appearance is regular, much more so, than any artificial wall would be after exposure for ages to the surges of the ocean.

Opposite the northern end of the town, as though a breach had been artificially cut, there is through this reef a channel of sufficient depth and width to admit ships of sixteen feet draught, at high water.

Close to this opening, on the extremity of the reef, stands the fort, built by the Dutch. Its foundations were admirably laid, being composed of long blocks of stone imported from Europe, hewed square. They were laid lengthwise to the sea, and then bound together by iron. A wall of the same origin extends from the base of the fortification to the body of the reef.

The district of San Pedro is not large. Its buildings are chiefly in the old Dutch style of architecture, and many of them retain their latticed balconies or *gelouzias*.

The principal street of the Recife is Rua da Cruz. At its northern extremity, towards the Arsenal da Marinha, it is wide, and imposing in its aspect. Towards the other end it is narrow, and flanked by high houses, like most of the streets by which it is intersected. A single bridge connects this part of the city with San Antonio, the middle district. This bridge across the Beberibe is more modern than the one having a row of shops on either side. That having been broken down in the revolution of 1824, was rebuilt in a different style. It has no covering, but is flanked on either side, and in the middle, by rows of seats, which furnish a favourite resting-place to throngs of persons who walk out in the evenings to enjoy the cool air and refreshing sea-breeze. On the side towards the sea vessels anchor near to it, though they do not pass above this bridge. At either end stands an archway, built of brick. These arches are disconnected with the bridge, although they span the street leading to and from it. The principal object of their construction seems to have been to furnish a prominent place for shrines and images. These arches survived the destruction of the old bridge, on account of the religious purposes to which they are devoted.

In the San Antonio quarter of Pernambuco are the palace and military arsenal, in front of which a wall has been extended along the river's bank. Above the water's edge there is a row of green-painted seats, for the accommodation of the public.

The principal streets of this quarter, with an open square used as a market-place, are spacious. The bridge crossing the other river is long, although the stream beneath is shallow. On the southern or south-western bank of this river stands the British chapel, in a very convenient place. Boa Vista is chiefly occupied by private residences and country seats. A few large buildings stand near the river, and, like most of those in the other sections of the town, are devoted in part to commercial purposes. Beyond these, the houses are generally low, and are surrounded by gardens or *sitios*. The streets are unpaved, and in a most wretched condition, and many of the streets and lanes in the suburbs are filthy.*

TRADE OF PERNAMBUCO.

Butter and other manufactured goods have been, but not altogether, supplied

* The hedges in the environs of Pernambuco are similar to those at Rio, although generally more rank in growth. Many of the houses exhibit an expensive, and at the same time tasteful, style of construction. I was pointed to one, in the veranda of which was arranged a collection of statues. The owner being a wealthy and notorious slave-dealer, some wag, a few years since, thinking either to oblige or to vex him, crept in by night and supplied him with a cargo of new negroes, by painting all the marble faces black.

Magdalena, on the left of Boa Vista, is another favourite section of the town. A stone bridge across the river leads into it.

by Great Britain; latterly the woven cotton cloth called "*domestics*" has been introduced from the United States, particularly for the African market. The American cloths of this kind are stouter and heavier than those of English manufacture, more equable in length and breadth, each piece thirty yards in length, and of the width of twenty-seven to twenty-eight inches. These "*domestics*" sell also for better prices than the English; but the manufacturers of Lancashire are making an imitation of these "*domestics*," the imports of which have been successful.

In printed cottons those of Manchester and Glasgow remain unrivalled, except in printed muslins, in supplying which the Swiss are successful competitors. In linens those of Scotland and Ireland command a preference, although the few imported from Portugal are always in demand. In the finer descriptions of woollens, the French are profitably increasing their imports.

Salted cod-fish, from Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, is almost exclusively in the hands of the English. A chance foreign vessel may arrive on speculation, which is not injurious to those colonies, as the parties either purchase the fish, or take it in barter for other commodities. This trade forms a considerable item in the British commerce with Pernambuco: of eighty-eight English vessels which arrived and discharged in this port in 1844, twenty-six vessels were from the North American colonies. The French have introduced one cargo from the island of St. Pierre on the coast of Newfoundland; yet with the bounty allowed by their government of twelve francs for each barrel of two quintals, it sold at a loss to the owners; their fish is too large and fat to be sufficiently cured and prepared for the climate of Brazil.

Tea has been principally supplied from the United States.

Butter.—The French have been within the last few years augmenting their importation of this article. In 1840, they introduced 4160½ firkins; 1841, 5549; 1842, 5066; 1843, 7981; and in 1844, 8962 firkins; the English imported during the same years, viz., in 1840, 4437 firkins; in 1841, 3889; in 1842, 3249; in 1843, 4022; and in 1844, 3616 firkins. The quality of the French is considered much inferior to the Irish butter, and sells at lower rates.

Earthenware and Glass.—The former is chiefly from England. Some coarse ware is imported from Oporto and Hamburg. The German common glass is much used from its cheapness.

Soap is now manufactured to a very considerable extent in Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, and this city, but the quality is much inferior to the foreign.

Hats.—The German manufacturers in this city supply a cheap article which is injurious to the import of common hats, with the exception of the *Braga* hats, from Portugal, which are always in demand; the finer qualities from England and France are only worn by the higher classes and foreigners.

Flour.—That of the finer kind imported from Trieste, is eagerly sought for by the bakers, to mix with that from the United States, which, together, make superior bread.

Iron, bar and rod, iron-work and hardware, iron boilers and pans for the sugar engenhos, are all in considerable demand; the latter from England, excepting some inferior kind of hardware from the continent. The English iron is, however, favoured in the import duty, paying 1 rial 250 dollars per quintal, and Swedish pays 1 rial 750 dollars per quintal, a difference in favour of the former of 500 rials, or 1s. 0 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per quintal.

Messrs. Starr and Co.'s works for the manufacture of steam-engines, machinery, &c., are extensive, and prosperous; two other English establishments of a similar description have been lately formed, with favourable prospects.

A quantity of produce is sent to foreign ports from Maceio, Parahiba, Aracati, and Ceara, on account of merchants in Pernambuco, and received in payment for commodities sold to the shopkeepers and others in the interior.

In this province many circumstances have tended strongly to check its prosperity; the great depreciation in the currency,—the baneful effects of the slave-trade, in draining the province of the precious metals; the great diminution in the produce of cotton, formerly its staple article of export, all operate against its prosperity.

The produce of sugar has, however, rapidly increased, viz., 1828 to 1831, the average annual export was 1,607,389 arrobas, and in the four years 1841 to 1844, the same was augmented to 2,083,212 arrobas annually, an increase of 475,823 arrobas annually, or, 6797 $\frac{3}{4}$ tons. The number of hides exported during the two periods of the preceding mentioned four years, has augmented in a yet greater ratio than sugar: in the four years, 1828 to 1831, the annual average export was 60,272 hides, and in the latter four years of 1841 to 1844 inclusive, the same average has increased to 122,573 hides per annum, showing a surplus of 62,301 hides.

A new article of export has lately attracted much attention, the *carnauba wax*, obtained from the leaves of a peculiar species of the palmatto. In the sertão of the province, and the provinces of Ceara and Piauhhy, are immense forests of this tree, which can provide an inexhaustible supply, should it be found suitable for the English market. The inhabitants of the districts where this palm grows, during the dry season of the year, beat from the leaves a white powder, which, being carefully collected, is boiled in water to the state of consistency forming the wax. Many small quantities have been sent to Liverpool as an experiment. In the manufacture of composition candles and other articles it forms a principal ingredient. The candles made entirely from this vegetable wax in the sertão, are said to emit an agreeable perfume whilst burning. Bees'-wax has latterly been attended to, and the management of bees better understood.

The feeding of the silkworm has recently become a subject of interest. These products, if capable of being encouraged and fostered, would add considerably to the advancement of this province.

Were the imperial government in a position, with reference to its finances, entirely to remit, or even to modify the export duty levied upon the produce of the Brazils transmitted to foreign ports, it would confer an invaluable boon upon the agriculturists. This duty is ten per cent upon a weekly average valuation of sugar; twelve per cent upon cotton, coffee, and tobacco, and seven per cent upon rum, hides, and all other articles. The cotton districts require this relief perhaps more than any other, as the planters are obliged to incur very heavy expense in bringing their cotton, by horse conveyance, a distance varying from twenty to 100 leagues, to the Recife, during the dry seasons, when food and fodder for man and beast are difficult to obtain: the obstructions and charges are augmented, leaving him, the planter, for the fruits of his labour and industry, a sum little more than $1\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb.

RETURN of British and Foreign Trade within the Consulate of Pernambuco, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1845.

DESCRIPTION.	ARRIVED.				DEPARTED.				REMARKS.
	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage	Number of Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage	Number of Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	
		tons.		£		tons.		£	
British	79	17,165	997	398,780	74	16,582	962	309,668	{ Six vessels in port 1844, sailed in 1845; ten ditto sailed in ballast; one ditto remains in port.
Brazilian	7	1,488	95	6,750	10	2,514	132	25,583	
French	19	3,766	219	118,461	20	3,993	231	114,899	{ One vessel was over in the year 1844; none in port. One vessel over in 1844; one now in port.
Spanish	16	2,278	191	13,381	16	2,221	191	46,586	
Austrian	7	2,243	86	19,430	7	2,243	86	43,629	{ None in port. Nine vessels over in 1844; five ditto remain in port waiting cargoes.
Portuguese	24	5,009	362	58,814	28	6,183	451	97,298	
Sardinian	28	5,368	336	20,084	26	4,780	305	101,544	{ Five remained over 1844; seven vessels now in port. Ten vessels went south with part cargoes; two ditto sold here; four remain in port.
United States	35	6,117	332	120,415	19	3,216	171	56,692	
Sweden	10	2,728	118	22,230	12	3,132	139	53,074	{ Four vessels over in 1844; two now in port. Three vessels in port.
Denmark	8	1,533	87	25,195	5	1,031	51	22,411	
Hamburg	3	562	29	16,366	2	450	21	9,069	{ One vessel sailed south in ballast. One vessel south with part of cargo.
Belgium, &c.	4	938	39	4,400	3	750	3	17,500	
Sicilian	2	601	28	2,900	4	1,044	55	15,621	{ Two were over from 1844; none in port.
Total	242	49,796	2919	827,215	226	48,539	2725	913,574	

QUANTITY of the following Articles Imported from Great Britain for all other Countries.

C O U N T R I E S.	I R O N , I R O N W A R E , A N D M A C H I N E R Y .										
	Sugar Pans.	Stove Plates.	Shovels.	Bar Iron.	Hoops.	Rods.	Sheet.	Ma- chinery, &c.	Chain Cables.	An- chors.	Nails.
	number.	number.	dozens.	number.	bundles.	bundles.	bundles.	tons.	numbr.	numbr.	kgs. & bgs.
Great Britain.....	188	760	892	1810	1283	50	170	108	4	27	257
Brazilian Ports.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6
France.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Portugal.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	31
Hamburg, &c.....	..	..	..	325	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other countries.....	..	..	..	1885	..	..	..	..	..	..	23
Total.....	188	760	892	4020	1283	50	170	108	4	27	318

ARTICLES Imported from Great Britain, &c.—continued.

C O U N T R I E S.	C O P P E R .			L E A D .					
	Cases.	Single Sheets.	Shots.	Rolled.		Sheet.	Bars.		White Lead.
				Bundles.	Loose.		Weight not declared.	Weight specified.	
	number.	tons. cwt.	barrels.	number.	tons. cwt.	bundles.	number.	tons.	barrels.
Great Britain.....	18	21 1	637	18	5 7	75	144	25	100
Brazilian Ports.....	..	..	38	..	..	..	..	..	..
France.....	..	..	701	..	..	75	..	..	..
Spain.....	..	..	156	..	..	..	944	..	..
Other countries.....	..	..	12	..	..	..	..	..	62
Total.....	18	21 16	1544	18	5 7	150	1088	25	162

ARTICLES Imported from Great Britain, &c.—continued.

C O U N T R I E S.	W I N E.				C A N D L E S.				C O A L S.	C O R D A G E.	
	Pipes.	Hogs- heads.	Barrels.	Cases and Baskets.	Wax.	Sperm.	Tallow.	Compo- sition.		Hemp.	Coir, and Manilla.
	number.	number.	number.	number.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.		tons.	coils.
Great Britain.....	..	13	62	34	..	..	..	789	1421½	232	776
Brazilian Ports.....	..	45	23	138	67	..	110	10	..	..	52
France.....	15	57	120	896	..	7	..	1007	..	..	..
Spain.....	210	84	156	..	..	..	..	..	..	58	..
Portugal.....	1091	31	1859	5	1	..	30	..	..	785	..
Hamburg, &c.	8	2	5	364	..	..	20	52	15	116	136
Other countries.....	..	93	1	24	..	990	..	41	..	..	..
Total.....	1324	325	2226	1461	68	997	160	1899	1436½	1191	964

ARTICLES Imported from Great Britain, &c.—continued.

C O U N T R I E S.	C H E E S E .		D R U G S .	G U N - P O W D E R .	H A R D - W A R E .	M A C - C A R O N I A N D V E R M A - C E L L I .	P A I N T S .	P I T C H A N D T A R .	P O T A S H .	R A I - S I N S .	R O S I N .
	Boxes.	Loose.									
	number.	packag.									
Great Britain.....	487	605	80	5554	558	..	1313	100	8	..	1
Brazilian Ports.....	9	..	..	..	26	551	..	..	57	50	..
France.....	605	..	108	..	9	799	4	..	1	225	..
Spain.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1641	..
Portugal.....	47	..	94	..	470	20	..	..	..	..	..
Hamburg, &c.....	688	..	33	..	188	..	70	41	647	..	..
Other countries.....	189	94	84	..	87	809	..	52	656	1142	790
Total.....	2025	699	399	5554	1338	2179	1391	193	1369	3058	791

The SMALL PROVINCE of ALAGOAS, was formerly included within the limits of Pernambuco, but was cut off from the latter, in order to reduce the province of the Pernambuccans, of whose independent spirit Rio de Janeiro has been always jealous. Alagoas derives its name from the lagoon, on which stood its old capital. The coast is very flat, with sandy beaches interrupted by red clay cliffs, eighty to ninety feet high. Maceio, the capital, is fifty-two leagues to the south of Pernambuco. Mr. Cowper, the British consul at the latter place, who visited Maceio, in January, 1846, says, the town is well-built, and contains about 5000 inhabitants; and that the port is sufficiently extensive. The trade of this place consisted, in 1845, in exporting produce, to the value of about 112,000*l.* sterling, exclusive of Brazil-wood (of which the crown has a monopoly), to the estimated value of about 12,000*l.* sterling. The direct European imports of manufactured goods, amounted in value to 8250*l.* sterling (all from Great Britain); and of the exports, the value of about 95,000*l.* sterling was exported in British vessels: twenty-five British vessels entered the port, and five belonging to other countries. A revolution had previously broken out in the province; but it was suppressed, but not until the place was sacked by the party called the *Sisos*, or *Smoothers*, who were then established in Para; the president of which has put down the press. The mere legislation of the province is considered a farce. Immense quantities of oysters abound in the lake of Alagoas, and constitute a cheap article of food. Some parts are very deep, but generally the water is shallow. The lands around the lake is devoted to the cultivation of sugar, with here and there a small town, or *povoações*; the chief of these are Villa de Norte, Cocoa Seco, and Pedreiro; and the principal *engenhos*, Carapina and Pinto. The country is undulating, and the soil of that peculiar dark colour, said to be the best adapted for the growth of sugar; but the *engenhos* of Alagoas are very inferior to those of Pernambuco; filth and poverty seem stamped on their walls, and idleness and neglect upon their fields. Some *engenhos* have no more than six slaves, and make only four or five cases of sugar annually. Many of the sugar baking-houses are described by Mr. Cowper as merely thatched sheds; and the mill power is either water or cattle, never steam. Owing to the drought, he found the majority of the water-*engenhos* stopped; at this part, however, the *mundahû* enabled them to work. The condition of the people is worse in this province than in Pernambuco, even near Maceio their huts were altogether built of cocoa-nut leaves—a rare circumstance in Pernambuco; but they appeared, however, to be tolerably supplied with the mere necessities of life.

“Passing,” says Mr. Cowper, “the villages of Corto Latoubã, and the *Engenho Gassatorte*, we ascended to the *tabolleira*, or table-land, and here the whole face of the country altered, it is about three long leagues in extent, and appears to be the barrier at this part between the coast and the *matto*, or forest.”

He divides these provinces into three natural districts :—the costa, or coast; the matto, or forest; and the sertão, or highlands. The barren taballeira appears to divide the first from the second; cactacea, and other desert weed-plants, are scantily spread over it; the soil is sandy, on which no water rests, and the few trees that are met with are stunted, the whole appearance of the taballeira is deserted and wild: it has no inhabitants. At its extremity he passed a village called Boca da Matta, or Mouth of the Forest; here the soil changed to a rich light loam of a deep red colour, with large timber-trees. Mr. Cowper says, "The race of men visibly changed too; upon the coast we had seen the black, the white, and their varieties, forming a mongrel race, morally and physically degenerate,—but on the side of the taballeira upon which we now found ourselves, the matto, the human species at once improved, few varieties were to be seen; they were almost universally mulattoes, which, indeed, they call themselves; it is probable that an admixture of Indian blood may have produced this change, for it appears that human exotics improve by being grafted upon the indigenous race; the mamalukas, or female offspring of the white and Indian, are universally considered the most beautiful women in Brazil; and I have no doubt that the superior physical appearance of the people of the matto to those of the coast, is the cross between the negro and the Indian. Two leagues from Boca da Matta, we arrived at Atalaia, a town, originally belonging to the Indians, situated upon the Mundahû River, and containing about 1500 inhabitants; it is now in a miserable condition; it was the point at which most of the encounters between the government troops and the rebels, during the last insurrection, took place: this commenced what the drought has accomplished, the utter ruin of Atalaia. It is long since the Indians possessed it; they were driven out by the Portuguese, who raised it to considerable importance in a commercial point of view; it became the emporium for the productions of Europe for supplying the interior, and they there received the cotton and cattle forwarded thence for the coast; until very lately it remained in this state; the population being almost wholly white, but the brutality of the soldiers, sent to quell the rebellion, to the women, drove the Portuguese to the coast, and Atalaia has sunk into a receptacle for fugitive thieves and slaves; the insurrection cost the province 900 contos, or 90,000*l*."

He passed the Engenho Cagado, upon the Mundahû, which was here quite dry, and reached the commercially unimportant town of Capella, on the Parahiba River, which the drought had dried up. Cotton, produced in this neighbourhood, is forwarded to Maceio on horseback. Here he met some of the wretched emigrants from the sertão, driven towards the coast by the famine produced by the want of rain; they looked like living skeletons. Leaving the next village, Costa, he entered the beautiful valley of Gamellera, at the foot of the Serra dos

dois Timãos. He says, "Highly picturesque mountains, several thousand feet above the level of the sea, and actually one thousand from the valley, are at its end; betwixt them the Parahiba falls over rocks, hollowed into caves, and rushes through the town, which is pleasing, and contains about 500 or 600 inhabitants. The hills upon each side are covered to their summits by palm-trees, in the most exquisite state of perfection; from these the people extract oil, and in the lower parts of the valley plant cotton." He was several hours crossing the serra, which is the boundary betwixt the matto and the sertão, and about twenty-six leagues from Maceio due west, and then reached Assemblia, the first Sertaneja town.

He then informs us, "In the sertão all is again changed—the face of the country, the race of men, and their habits. The negro and his varieties are almost entirely lost, for very few slaves ever enter the sertão; the roots of this species (the sertão inhabitants) are the white and the Indian, the former predominating; the women are very beautiful, feminine in their manners, and soft and gentle in their voices, forming a strong contrast with their fellow-countrywomen of the coast; with considerable natural modesty too, they have none of the *gaucherie* of the latter, and their hospitality and kindness knows no bounds. The men are a fine, open-hearted, active set of fellows, devoted to their herds, which they tend on horseback; they are unrivalled horsemen: their dress is peculiar, and unlike any thing I have seen in other countries, it is entirely composed of leather; the hat is broad-brimmed and low-crowned; the guarda peita, or waistcoat, is slung round the neck, and has no back; the *tibão*, or jacket, usually worn slung over one shoulder, like the hussar pelisse; the trousers in two pieces, the legs being separate to enable them to sit their horses with greater ease; then the long espada, or sword, with its silver handle; the faca de ponta, or dagger, silver-hilted and sheathed; the heavy silver spurs, with immense iron rowels; the patrona, or cartouch-box; the flaying knife, or faca grande; and the purse, wove by the women: the accoutrements of the horse too, with its high saddle and ornamented bridled, present a living picture, which it is impossible not to admire. They glory in the name of 'Baqueiro,' and the sons of the richest proprietors join their ranks. From their continued exposure to the sun, there is a marked difference in their colour and that of the women; and it is, perhaps, particularly owing to this wild state of existence, and to their frequent, and to our ideas not justifiable, forages upon the Indians, that we may attribute their practice of taking justice into their own hands."

With reference to the change of soil from the sea-coast inland, he says, "Upon the immediate coast, the soil was flat and sandy; a little inland, muddy alluvium, rising gradually in undulating hills, a rich black loam was the prevailing supersoil, next the light red loam, and hills of increasing altitude, covered with

magnificent timber; but in the sertão, after passing the Dois Timãos, the country is peculiar: it does not present a range of serras, but a multiplication of stupendous isolated mountains, or, at most, short ranges, very often almost impassable; these mountains are excessively rocky, and the singularity in their appearance is, that their superficie is covered by broken pieces of rock, sometimes so regular in form that, where the red limestone prevailed, they resembled heaps of bricks." He collected specimens of a variety of marble, crystals, and stalactites, during that journey. Of that vast portion of the sertão, the *catinga*, or plains between the serras, which is devoted to pasture, he says, "They are most important districts, inasmuch as the whole of the cattle and horses of the country are bred there. Why the term 'catinga' has been applied to it is doubtful, the only known meaning of the word in the Portuguese language, is the peculiar smell which is said to exude from the bodies of dirty blacks. The catinga has an excessively barren appearance,—the soil poor, arid, and gravelly; the trees, or rather brushwood, stunted; cactaceæ, of infinite variety, abound; one solitary fruit, the imbu, is produced there, and nowhere else; but most important of all, is the wild grass, or *capim*, which springs up in immense profusion at the slightest rain. Three years of drought, when I passed the catinga, had rendered it a desert; indeed, the miserable horned-cattle had instinctively learnt to knock off the thorns of the cactaceæ, and devour their stems; the starving population, or the very few that were left, were eating the fruit of cactus, and that of the imbu. We frequently travelled a whole day without meeting a soul. An intelligent French engineer is of opinion that the catinga was once covered with forests, which, having been burnt, destroyed the soil for the purposes of high vegetation. I am of an extremely different opinion, for these reasons:—first, I have never seen large forests on a gravelly soil; secondly, for what purpose could the forests have been destroyed, and so extensively? for the catinga not only exists in Pernambuco and Alagoas, but runs in an uninterrupted line from Bahia, and perhaps further south, to Piauhý; and, lastly, there are no remains whatever of large timber, or that rich dark soil and red subsoil which distinguishes the forest lands of this country, produced, I presume, by the decay of vegetable matter. I believe the soil of catinga to be virgin; and it is upon this, as I before observed, that all the cattle of the country is bred.

"There are oases to this desert in the shape of well-watered hills; it is upon these spots that the towns of the sertãos are placed, where cotton is produced, and its agriculture flourishes. *Assemblea* was the first of these, it is situated upon the Parahiba River, and had been a place of considerable commerce before the drought; it was now (1846) in a state of dreadful destitution, crowded with refugees from the catinga, with farinha at famine prices, and these unfortunates, without

roofs to cover them, were living or dying, or both, in the ditches, with a few leaves placed from bank to bank as a shelter; the Parahiba had ceased to flow, but like all the rivers of this province the bed was rocky, so that it retained portions of water between them in hollows, which the people called 'pocos,' or wells. In the neighbourhood of Assembleia we visited the cotton estate, or 'Fazenda de Algodão,' of Lorenzo." At Lorenzo he first observed the marked distinction between the Senhor do Engenho and the Senhor da Fazenda, "the former is the feudal lord, the sovereign and owner of all upon his property, and he lives in a certain degree of state; the latter great proprietor and planter is still a chief, but neither the sovereign nor owner of his people; he lives very much as they do, and his sons call themselves 'baqueiros,' and act as such, too, in the same manner as the poorest tenant upon the estate; they both have infinite power, the first from the fear inspired by his position; the second, from the affection generally felt for his person. The Senhor do Engenho commands; the Senhor da Fazenda requests, and they are both obeyed. Assembleia contains about 1800 inhabitants; passing from thence through the Matto Oscuro into the Valley of Limoeira, we ascended the Serra de Gravahã, and reached the town of Quebrangula in the evening; it is situated upon the Parahiba, it contains about 2000 permanent residents, but was filled like Assembleia, with emigrants from the upper sertão; it was one of the principal commercial emporiums upon the Parahiba, but owing to the drought is falling rapidly to decay. We slept at a very fine Fazenda de Gado, or cattle estate, about two leagues from Quebrangula, called Gamella, and crossing a mountain called the Serote, the next day passed the small village of Passages, when recrossing the frontiers into Pernambuco, we arrived at the town of Papacaca, beautifully situated amongst the hills, and surrounded with cotton plantations, it is 100 leagues west-south-west from this city, is a new town, and I have no doubt that when the river communication is once more open, it will become an important commercial station, it contains about 1000 inhabitants, whose amiable simplicity and hospitality I shall always gratefully remember.

"Upon the 30th of January we crossed the most formidable mountain which we encountered during the whole journey, called the Serra de Travassada, and entering the catinga, passed the Fazendas de Gado of Trapiar and Salgado; we then crossed in quick succession the Serras of Comunati, Ponta, and Panêma; in the latter we rested at the Engenho das Antas, the only sugar estate which we saw in the sertão; indeed, sugar is infinitely scarcer there than in England, we carried our own with us; we passed through the pretty village of Agoas Bellas, and descending the Serra de Panêma, arrived at the town of that name, formerly called the Panema dos Indios, but, alas! that devoted race are driven from there

into the neighbouring *catinga*, where they commit depredations upon the cattle, and are in turn shot wherever met with, as a *baqueiro* said, in my presence, 'Of all the beasts of the field the Indian is the worst, when I meet one I shoot him like a tiger.' Panêma contains probably 800 or 1000 inhabitants, and does not appear to be a place of much commercial or agricultural importance—it is surrounded by cattle fazendas.

MOXOTO TRIBE.—"From this point we entered a territory infested by Indians, this tribe, called Moxoto, is very extensive; they are so far wild that they decline submitting to the Brazilian government; they go quite naked, are armed with bows and arrows, and live by hunting, and, as the whites say, by depredation upon the cattle belonging to them, and by robbery and murder; on the other hand, they occasionally voluntarily seek work in the towns and at the fazendas, and are sometimes hunted, caught, and forced to work. When we were there, the inhabitants formed parties to go out and shoot them, asserting that orders had been received from Rio de Janeiro to exterminate them, but I cannot believe that so cruel a mandate could have been issued; as far as our experience goes they are perfectly harmless, we met them repeatedly in the *catinga*, leagues from any habitation; we were two foreigners, with a pair of pistols between us, our watches, chains, &c., visible, and our baggage-horse carrying provisions; they were starving, but they never molested us in the slightest degree."

Leaving Panêma, he proceeded across the *catinga* to the Serra dos Cavallos, passed the village of Logrador, and the Fazendas of Lagumes and Caiçara, in the serra of the latter name, crossed the frontier to the province of the Alagoas, arrived at Pilão, then passed through Capar, both insignificant places, then crossed the Serra de San Francisco, again into the *catinga*, and through the villages of Metade and Mereceocla, to the Serra da Matta Grande, in the midst of which the town of Matta Grande is situated; in the most fertile spot that he had seen since his entry into the sertão. It was covered with cotton plantations. Matta Grande is well-built: contains not less than 3000 inhabitants: before the drought it was the most important trading place of this part of the sertão. It is 128 leagues from Pernambuco, and seventy-six from Maceio. He travelled onwards to the Fazenda de Gatto, and the villages of Boucheron and St. Bento, in the *catinga*, and ascended the Serra de Matta Branca, from the summit of which, on a clear day, the spray of the Falls of Paulo Affonso may be seen, fourteen leagues distant; the town of Matta Branca is situated amongst hills, which are very fertile, and produce good cotton, which is conveyed to Piranhas.

We have in a former chapter introduced Mr. Cowper's account of the River San Francisco. He returned by land to Maceio from Penedo. He informs us that abundant supplies of ship-building wood may be obtained in the neighbour-

hood. In many parts, after leaving Penedo, the country exhibited burning forests, and at different intervals, the conflagration continued until they arrived at Pernambuco, a distance of eighty leagues. This destruction is attributed, in some cases to wantonness, in others to carelessness, but Mr. Cowper believed that the continued drought had rendered the fallen foliage and brushwood so combustible, that it was impossible to guard against their accidental ignition.

From Penedo he passed in succession the hill of Minimba, remarkable for its steep ascent, the village of OsPontes, an extensive *taballeira*, the Engenho Pescoço, the Rivers Conindongo and Xinga, the village of Benguela, and the Engenhos Genepapo and Porção, upon the Cururipe River; at the latter there is good building timber. He then proceeds onwards by the Lagoa de St. Lucia, and the town of that name, the village of Boca da Matta, the Engenhos Tiquia, Prata, Novo, and Caeascomba, and passed the hill of Barra Branca, to the town of San Miguel, which he describes as a rather well-built place, containing about 1500 inhabitants. In its immediate vicinity is the Engenho Tequimbâ, from whence to Taparaguâ the road for seven leagues is through *virgin* forests, which are so termed in Brazil when they retain *any* trees of the original forest; but, he says, "they are very unlike the noble forests on the Amazon, which have never yielded to man." He passed through Paparaguâ, which has about 500 inhabitants: it is a large environ of Alagoas.

ALAGOAS is situated about a mile from it, on a picturesque hill on the borders of the lake, but grass is growing in its streets, and it is falling rapidly to decay; its population is about 3000. He then embarked on the lake, and crossed to Maceio.

Proceeding along the coast, he passed the dangerous quicksands of the Menon River on horseback, the village and river of Pioca, the bar, river, and village of St. Antonio, and some most beautiful cretaceous cliffs, the only break to the monotony of sand-hills which he had seen on the coast of Brazil, they are about 100 feet high, of a blue and white colour, ruptured occasionally into deep, picturesque ravines. At this point he left the coast, and proceeded up the Camaregibe to a bustling little commercial town called the Passo de Camaregibe, with about 1000 inhabitants. Good building timber of various kinds grows in its neighbourhood.

The exportation of timber is, however, prohibited except under special licence from the imperial government, which is not conceded for ship-building timber.

He passed near Camaregibe an engenho worked by freemen. In the same part of the country he says there existed a horrible disease, which he had never before met with, or indeed heard of. It is called "goma;" the sufferer in this case

was the Senhor do Engenho of Vaga da Souza ; it is spoken of mysteriously, as of a curse brought from Africa, of which white men only are the sufferers. It is said to be incurable. The story is that if a white man copulates with an African girl of a certain constitution, sores break out after a certain time, which are difficult to heal, and attack the legs and arms, but they eventually leave the body ; not so the disease, which is sure to appear afresh before death in the shape of "goma," when the flesh by degrees withers from the bones. The consul, however, imagines the whole story to be fabulous, and believes the "bobas" to be nothing more than the common "sarva," to which every one in that country is more or less liable, and that it has nothing whatever to do with the "goma," which has all the appearance and characteristics of leprosy, also a malady with which that country is unfortunately afflicted.

From Camaregibe he passed the Engenhos Canto, Lucena, Matta Redouda, Capitaõ Dias, Santa Cruz, Prazeres, and reached the town of Porto Calvo upon the Una. It is now a small place with large houses, and *a city-like appearance*. It suffered much in the rebellions, and contains about 2000 inhabitants. It still carries on some trade, and appears to be gradually recovering its former prosperity. Proceeding onwards he passed the Engenhos Cava d'Onca, Pao d'Arco, Taparatuba, and Duas Barras, and then recrossed the frontiers from Alagoas to the province of Pernambuco. On his journey to the capital of the latter, he passed the Engenhos Paracinha, Savê, and Limoeira, to the prosperous town of Rio Formoso, upon the river of that name. The commerce of this town he describes as considerable ; its population is about 2000. After leaving the town he travelled onwards by the Engenho Gaucâno, and village of San Amaro, the Engenhos Tropixe, Agoa Fria, Anjo Taceru, to the town of Seringhaem, upon the Seringhaem River, a place with very little commerce, and not above 1000 inhabitants. He visited the Engenhos St. Braz, Rosario, Caxoeira, and Caxoeira Nova, and a beautiful little cascade upon the Seringhaem, and the mouths of the Formoso and Seringhaem, and after visiting the several Engenhos of Genepapo, Pandanbinha, Caetê, Salgado, Meoces, and Velho, and the town of Cape St. Augustin, a flourishing place, with a population of about 1500 souls. He arrived at the city of the Recife, Pernambuco, having accomplished a most arduous journey of 305 leagues in thirty-seven days, and lost six horses through the privations which they suffered.

MACEIO.—The port of Maceio, is protected by a reef of rocks, visible at ebb tide. The beach within it forms a semicircle of white sand. Immediately back from the beach are a row of white houses, with here and there groves of coqueiros, bearing fruit. Upon the hill above stands the city of Maceio, with a population of about 3000. There is not a convenient landing-place in its harbour.

In 1844 Maceio, contained two churches, in miserable repair, and two more in the process of erection, but no convents. Its other public buildings were a theatre, a government-house, barracks for soldiers, and a camara municipal. The theatre was ornamented outside with rude crosses and forms representing stars and circles; apparatus for illumination was affixed to all these ornaments. Notwithstanding various evidences of popular interest in this edifice, it stood open and apparently deserted, one of its sides having yielded to the force of gravitation, or having been pulled down for repairs. Most of the houses in Maceio are built of *taipa*, and, with one or two exceptions, do not exceed a single story in height. Children who are *not free* run about naked: free women employ themselves in lace-making. The shops are described as wretched. The place altogether is described as dull and uninteresting. There is an English and foreign burying-ground, but Mr. Kidder says, its gate, "made of wood, had been suffered to decay and fall in pieces, and thus the enclosure was left open and desolate. Many of the houses in the extremities of the town are very small, and covered only with a thatch of the cocoa-palm leaves."

The exports of the province of Alagoas are chiefly sugar, cotton, hides, Brazil-wood and rosewood. Sugar, in large cases, is brought from the interior, upon rude carts, drawn severally by six or eight oxen. The cotton comes in bales of about 180 pounds each. Of these a horse carries one on either side of a pack-saddle. Mules have not yet been introduced into this region as beasts of burden, although it is thought they would be more serviceable than horses. Of late the greater proportion of the productions of the province has been exported by way of Bahia and Pernambuco. Formerly foreign shipments were more frequent, and a greater number of foreigners resided in the place.

At one time two newspapers were published in Maceio, but, belonging to opposite political parties, they were continually wrangling with each other. Bad words soon led to bad deeds. Early one morning it was found that the *taipa* walls of one printing-office had been broken through, and its types and press destroyed. In a short time the other shared the same fate; neither have been re-established.

CHAPTER X.

PROVINCES OF BAHIA, SERGIPE, ESPIRITU SANTO, AND PORTO SEGURO.

THE PROVINCE OF BAHIA including the old captaincy *dos Ilheos*, extends from the Belmonte, in latitude 15 deg. 25 min. south, to the Rio Real, which divides it from Sergipe del Rey, in latitude 11 deg. 38 min. south,* being about

* Cazal states that the province extends from 10 deg. south latitude to 16 deg. south latitude; but neither the boundaries of this nor of some other provinces, are well defined.

300 miles in length. On the west and north-west, it is separated by the River San Francisco from Pernambuco; while, on the south-west it bounds on Minas Geraes. It is divided like Pernambuco, into the comarcas of Bahia, Ilheos, and Jacobina, the former two comprising the coast, and the latter the western part of the province.

With the exception of the descriptions of Prince Maximilian and Mr. Henderson, which in many instances are now obsolete, we have but little satisfactory information respecting the interior of this province. Mr. Kidder confines his account chiefly to the city of Bahia, and the British consul has not transmitted any accounts of the internal parts. Travelling across the province from Ilheos to Minas Geraes, primeval forests, mountains, hills, and plains are traversed. There are scattered villages during the route; and canoes ascend, though with great difficulty, and often danger, some of the rivers. Cultivation is not described in a flourishing condition in the province, although it is susceptible of the greatest extension and prosperity.

Its commerce is represented both by the British and French consuls, and by Mr. Kidder, to have been for some years on the decline. The British consul considers the diminished importation of flour (about one-half) as one indication of decline in the means of the inhabitants. The diminished sale of European manufactures he attributes to the same cause, and to the failure of agricultural crops, and he attributes the consequences of the revolutions of 1837 and 1838, as other causes. The trade of Bahia has also lost much of the exports of Sergipe and Alagoas, where the merchants of Pernambuco have formed branches of their commercial establishments. It will appear, however, from the tables of trade hereafter, that the trade of Bahia is rather stationary than retrograding.

THE PROVINCE OF SERGIPE DEL REY derives its name from the River Seregipe, an aboriginal name, on which St. Christovao the capital was first established,* but removed afterwards to another situation. Its conquest and colonisation were commenced in 1590, and was granted to Christovam de Barros, the deputy-governor of Bahia, as a reward for his services in reducing the natives. It was long considered a district of Bahia, but had its *ouvidors* about the year 1696. Having less natural advantages for commerce, this province has not made the same progress as the other maritime captaincies. Along its coast there are no capes, islands, or good ports. Its rivers have bars which are generally more or less dangerous, and afford little shelter, except to small vessels. The surface of the province is generally flat, there being scarcely a hill or mountain of any considerable elevation. The Serra Itabaianna, between the Rio Real and the Vazabarris, which, though more than twenty miles from the coast, is visible

* It received the name of St. Christovam in honour of Christovam de Barros, the first donatory. This town was destroyed by the Dutch in 1637.

at a great distance from the sea. Valuable Brazil and other woods grow on this serra. Cazal divides the province into eastern and western. The former, in consequence of its woods, is called *Mattas*; the latter, which includes the larger portion of territory, has acquired, from the sterility of its soil, the denomination of *Agrestes*: the eastern part of the province yields sugar and tobacco, and the western is chiefly devoted to rearing cattle. A few *aldeias* on the River San Francisco, its northern boundary, are the most cultivated spots. In the eastern part, four settlements have been named towns,* besides Sergipe or St. Christovao, which, being the capital, ranks as a city. It is situated on an elevation near the River Paramopama, an arm of the Vazabarris, eighteen miles from the sea. *Sumacas* ascend to it, and take in sugar and cotton. It contains one or two convents, two chapels, a misericordia, a town-house, and a large bridge; all built of stone: it has plenty of good water. But the most populous and the busiest settlement in the whole province is or was, some time ago, the *povoação* of Estancia, five leagues from the sea, on the River Piauh, which falls into the Rio Real, by which sumacas ascend to it. None of the rivers are navigable for large vessels, and the entrances of all are dangerous.

The commerce and industry of Sergipe and Bahia are so intimately connected, that the following statement by the French consul of establishments, &c., in 1843, includes both, viz., 728 sugar engenhos, 172 distilleries, seven snuff and fifty-five cigar manufactures, one paper, four soap, four candle works, one cotton factory, seventy-eight saw-mills, eleven ship-yards, nine printing presses, and ten newspapers.

CITY OF BAHIA.—Bahia de Todas os Santos, the Bay of All Saints, was discovered in 1503 by Americus Vesputius, under the patronage of the King of Portugal, Dom Manoel. Vesputius carried home from the coast of Santa Cruz, as the newly-discovered country was first called by the Portuguese, a cargo of *ibiripitanga*, the dye-wood, which, when cut in pieces, resembled *brazas*, coals of fire. From which circumstance it acquired the name of Brazil wood, and also conferred a name on the country.

In 1510, a vessel under the command of Diogo Alvares Corrêa, was wrecked near the entrance of this bay. The Tupinambas, a ferocious tribe inhabiting the coast, fell upon and destroyed all who survived the shipwreck, save the captain of the vessel, Diogo, whom they spared, as some supposed, on account of his activity in assisting them to save articles from the

* These are, San Amaro, north of the confluence of the Sergipe and the Cotinquiba; San Luzia, near the River Guararema, above its junction with the Rio Real; Itabaianna, in the vicinity of the serra of that name; and Villa Nova de San Antonio, on the San Francisco, twenty-five miles below Propiã or Urubu de Baixo, the chief place in the Agrestes.

† *Memorias Historicas e Politicas da Provincia da Bahia*, in 4 vols. by Ignacio Accioli de Cerqueira, et Silva, a native of Bahia.

wreck. Bahia owes to this event its foundation, and its being long the capital of Brazil.

Bahia, or San Salvador de Bahia, stands on the western shore of the Bahia de Todas os Santos, which extends twenty-eight miles from south to north, and twenty from east to west. The bay has two entrances on both sides of the island of Itaparica, of which the eastern is about five miles wide, and is used by large vessels; the western, called Barra Falsa, is only two miles wide, and owing to its shallowness can only be navigated by coasting-vessels. The best anchorage is opposite the town of Bahia. The town consists of two parts, the Praya or Citade Baxa, and the Citade Alta, which has the aspect of an old city. The Praya (beach) is one street nearly four miles long, and contains the magazines and warehouses for inland produce and foreign goods. At its southern extremity are the arsenal and the royal docks, and about three miles north-east of it, at Tagagipe, the ship yards in which mercantile vessels are built. A steep and very difficult ascent leads to the Citade Alta. Those who can pay, are carried up in a cadeira or ornamented chair, which is supported on the shoulders of negroes. The upper town consists of stone houses from three to five stories high, and of a good appearance. In the centre are several squares surrounded principally by public buildings. The cathedral, the old Jesuits' college, now a hospital, and numerous churches, are the chief public buildings in the upper town. Mr. Kidder is silent as to the number of inhabitants of Bahia and other towns in this province. The population has been estimated as exceeding 180,000 souls.

Some of the streets, between the upper and lower towns, wind by a zig-zag course along ravines; others slant across an almost perpendicular bluff, to avoid, as much as possible, its steepness. Nor is the surface level, when you have ascended to the summit. Its extent between its extreme limits, Rio Vermelho and Montserate, is about six miles. The town of Bahia is nowhere wide, and for the most part is composed of only one or two principal streets. The direction of these changes with the various curves and angles of the promontory. Frequent openings, between the houses built along the summit, exhibit the most picturesque views of the bay on the one hand, and of the country on the other.

Great sums have been expended in the construction of pavements, but more with a view to preserve the streets from injury by rains, than to furnish roads for any kind of carriages. Here and there may be seen an ancient fountain of stonework, placed in a valley of greater or less depth, to serve as a rendezvous for some stream that trickles down the hill above; but there is no important aqueduct.

Beyond the city stands the ruined wall of a public cemetery. This cemetery had been laid out and prepared under the auspices of a company, to which had been conceded the privilege of making the interments for the whole city, to their future exclusion from the churches. This was a measure so impe-

ratively called for with respect to health, that it had met with but little opposition at first, and had obtained the sanction of the archbishop. But no sooner was the new cemetery opened for use, than the popular fury broke forth against it. The people assembled in a mob, excited by their priests, whose perquisites were about to be curtailed. When the troops were called out to quell the riot, they joined the mob, and the whole cemetery was defaced and ruined.

The hedges of the suburbs of Bahia are composed of lime-trees, the leaves of which, when newly-trimmed, emit an exquisite fragrance. Large jaca-trees, with their heavy fruit clinging to the limbs and trunk, together with other trees, are abundant here.

Descending towards the Red River, or rivulet, the route is beautifully ornamented by coqueiros, and other indigenous trees and shrubs. Close under the brow of the Antonio hill is the principal establishment connected with the whale-fisheries of the harbour.

On the capture of a whale in the bay, hundreds of people, the coloured especially, throng around to witness its dying struggles, and to procure portions of the flesh, which they cook and eat. Vast quantities of this fishy food are cooked in the streets, and sold by Quitandeiras. Swine also feast upon the remains. This fishery, at the close of the seventeenth century, was rented to contractors by the crown for 30,000 dollars annually. The American whalers occasionally take whales off this coast, but in general they find other cruising grounds more profitable.

Ascending a winding path from the beach to the Victoria Hill, the English cemetery is beautifully situated.

In the principal parts of the city, there is an almost entire absence of horses and mules in the streets; but there is an unlimited number of goats and pigs.

The old cathedral, an immense edifice, which had been constructed with great expense, is now in a very neglected state. One of its wings is appropriated to the public library. It contains about 10,000 volumes, a large portion of which are in French, and some valuable manuscripts. In its immediate neighbourhood, are the archiepiscopal palace and seminary, and the old Jesuit college, now used as a military hospital. The latter building, together with the church of Nossa Senhora da Conceição on the Praya, may almost be said to have been built in Europe, from whence the stones, regularly prepared for use, were imported. There are numerous other churches—the president's palace, a substantial building of ancient date.

In 1811, a gazette, entitled "The Golden Age," was commenced; but a board of censors was appointed by the archbishop. At the same period the public library was founded, through the liberality of individuals.

In the year 1815, the first steam sugar-mill was introduced from England.

The public promenade of Bahia is situated on the boldest and most commanding height of the old town. One of its sides opens towards the ocean, and another up the bay; an iron railing protects the visitor from danger of falling over the steep precipice by which extends its whole front. The space allotted to the battery is laid out in good taste; but the variety and beauty of the trees and flowers of the Passeio Publico render it a delicious promenade.

“During the fête on the anniversary of the birth of the young emperor,” says Mr. Kidder, speaking of the Passeio Publico; “here it was, under the dark dense foliage of the mangueiras, the lime-trees, the bread-fruit, the cashew, and countless other trees of tropical growth, that about 9000 lights were blazing. Most of these hung in long lines of transparent globes, so constructed as to radiate severally the principal hues of the rainbow, and waved gracefully in the evening breeze as it swept along, laden with the fragrance of opening flowers.”

The Dias de grande gala, or political holidays, are celebrated throughout the empire. These are six in number: first, New Year's day, or that of paying compliments to the emperor and his representatives in the provinces; the second, on the 25th of March, the anniversary of the adoption of the constitution; the 7th of April, that of the emperor's accession; the 3rd of May, or that of opening the legislative assembly; the 7th of September, that of the declaration of independence; and the 2nd of December, or the emperor's birthday. On the celebration of the latter, Mr. Kidder says;—

“The wealth, fashion, and beauty of the Bahians never boasted a more felicitous display than was mutually furnished and witnessed by the thousands that thronged this scene. What an occasion was here offered to the mind disposed to philosophise on man. From hoary age to playful youth—no condition of life or style of character was unrepresented. The warrior and the civilian, the man of title, the millionaire, and the slave, all mingled in the common rejoicings; while the practised eye would not have failed to discern in the crowd, the lurking desperado and assassin. Never, especially, had the presence of females in such numbers, been observed to grace a scene of public festivity. Mothers, daughters, wives, and sisters, who seldom were permitted to leave the domestic circle except in their visits to the morning mass, hung upon the arm of their several protectors, and gazed with undissembled wonder at the seemingly magic enchantments before and around them. The dark and flowing tresses, the darker and flashing eye of a Brazilian belle, together with her sometimes darkly shaded cheek, show off with greater charms from not being hid under the arches of a fashionable bonnet. The graceful folds of her mantilla, or of the rich gossamer veil which is sometimes its substitute, wreathed in some indescribable manner over the broad, high, and fancy-wrought shell that adorns her head, can scarcely be improved by any imitation of foreign fashions. Nevertheless, the *forte* of a Brazilian lady is in her guitar, and the soft modinhas she sings in accompaniment to its tones.

“Besides its walks and its natural scenery, the Passeio Publico presented two objects of special attraction. One was the marble monument erected in memory of Dom John's visit to Bahia. In another quarter, upon a high parapet overlooking the sea and bay, had been constructed a fancy pavilion, in the style of an Athenian temple.”

The Island of Itaparica is about eighteen miles long, and five wide on an average. It has a population estimated at 16,000 souls, of whom 7000 were said to

live in its town. San Amaro, situated on a river which falls into the northern extremity of the bay, in a country abounding in sugar and tobacco, was estimated to contain 10,000 inhabitants. Caxoeira, on the River Paraguassu, is built at the point to which the tide ascends, and near some cataracts which interrupt the ascent of the river. In its neighbourhood there are plantations of sugar and tobacco; it contains 25,000 inhabitants. Camamu, is a seaport south of the Bahia, and with an estimated population of 8000 inhabitants; exports to the capital mandioc, rice, maize, coffee, and the bark of the mango-tree, which is used in tanning. A row of small islands and rocks skirt the shores north of the Bahia de Camamu, and form a channel by which small vessels can proceed to the Barra Falsa, without being exposed to the dangers of an open sea.

Excursions are made in boats from Bahia round its magnificent bay and islands. One of these Mr. Kidder describes—

“We first steered,” he says, “for Itaparica, and promptly traversed the nine miles intervening between the city and that island. Passing round the upper extremity of the island, we came to its principal port, and went on shore by means of canoes that immediately gathered around the steamboat. Here we found a villa defended by a fort, having two churches, and about 300 small, low houses.

“We next touched at Bom Jesus, a small island situated on the south side of the Ilha dos Frades. Here were a Matriz, or mother church, and a few small dwellings, located without order on the Praya.

“Returning, we passed near other islands, which, with their small villages, appeared exceedingly picturesque. As the sun was setting we passed by the small promontory of Bom Fim, and enjoyed a perfect view of the city.

“What can be more beautiful than those extended and curving lines of whitened buildings—the one upon the heights, the other upon the water’s edge—everywhere separated by a broad, rich belt of green, here and there dotted with houses. Nowhere does the uniformity of whitened walls and red-tiled roofs show to finer advantage, in contrast with the luxuriant vegetation that surrounds them. In fact, there are few cities that can present a single view of more imposing beauty than does Bahia, to a person beholding it from a suitable distance on the water. Even Rio de Janeiro can hardly be cited for such a comparison. That city excels in the endless variety of its beautiful suburbs: yet I should be at a loss to point out one which, in all respects, equals that part of Bahia known as the Victoria Hill. In Rio, one section competes with another, and each offers some ground of preference; but in Bahia, the superiorities seem all to be united in one section, leaving the foreigner no room for doubt or discussion respecting the best quarter for locating his residence. On the Victoria Hill may be found the finest gardens that Bahia afford, the most enchanting walks, and the most ample shade. Here too are the best houses, the best air, the best water, and the best society. The walls of two ancient and extensive forts, also add very much to the romantic and historical interest of the place. In fine, he who looks for any one spot that combines more of external beauty, than does that to which I refer, will roam long and widely over the face of the earth.

“In the lower town there are various *fabricas de imagens*—image manufactories. Saints, crucifixes, and every species of ghostly paraphernalia of Romanism are exhibited in the shops with profusion that I nowhere else saw, indicating that the traffic in these articles was more flourishing here than in other parts. It is not in name only that Bahia enjoys the ecclesiastical supremacy of Brazil. It is the seat of the only archbishopric in the empire. Its churches exceed in number, and in sumptuousness, those of any other

city; and its convents are said to contain more friars and more nuns than those of all the empire besides.

"In 1827, the pope issued a bull making the Brazilian Benedictines independent of their order in Portugal. Dissensions then broke out among them, when the election of an abbot-general took place at Rio de Janeiro. The pope's legate attempted to interfere, but was repulsed. The order, after this feud, became almost extinct, and the national assembly was allowed to confiscate its possessions! but did not succeed, and licence was granted them to receive more novices.

"Some of those who were admitted under this licence became so insubordinate, that that the abbot of the convent at Rio was obliged to call in the police of the city to maintain order.

"The Slippered Carmelites and the Barefooted Carmelites in Bahia, have been much more distinguished for wranglings among themselves, and for evasions of the revenue-laws, and of their own rules forbidding them to hold property, than for any special virtues or good works. The latter order is now nearly extinct, and the archiepiscopal seminary occupies their convent. The monks of the congregation of St. Philip Neri founded a hospicio on the Praya in 1756, but their succession having failed, the hospicio was transferred into an orphan asylum.

"The Barefooted Augustineans and the Almoners of the Holy Land, at one time had each small establishments in Bahia, but their building have been turned to secular purposes.

"The nunneries of Bahia are in the order of their foundation, as follows:—
1. The convent of Santa Clara do Desterro. 2. The convent of our Lady of Solitude. 3. The convent of our Lady of the Cliff. 4. The convent of our Lady of Mercy. Besides the regular nunneries, there are two recolhimentos.

"The Italian Capuchins are bearded impertinent mendicants of most filthy appearance. They have never been numerous in Bahia. They have a hospicio or small convent, and a splendidly decorated chapel in the town."

TRADE OF BAHIA.

The commerce of this port as well as of the naturally rich province of which it is the capital, has, especially since 1837, been declining.

The attempts to suppress the slave-trade, is urged as the chief reason for this diminished trade; for Bahia being opposite to the coast of Africa, was from early times the principal rendezvous for the slave-traders. The British consul informs us, that the planters of coffee in the south of the province of Bahia (Caravellas, Villa Vicoza, &c.),

"Find it more to their interest to send their crops to the market of Rio de Janeiro, where they obtain better prices; they are partly obliged to do so, to meet their engagements for the payment of slaves, at which place they can be obtained with greater facility, and at a much lower rate than in this province. The crops of tobacco are greatly diminished, occasioned by the abolition of the slave-trade. In the year 1817, the quantity of tobacco exported having been 660,000 arrobas, and during the year 1840, only to 231,243 arrobas, leaving a decrease of 428,757 arrobas. The quantity of rum made being dependent on the crops of sugar, has also diminished in proportion, and a great part of that made is now consumed in the province.

"Sugar is the staple produce of Bahia, and as the planters possess a considerable number of slaves, there will be little reduction in quantity.

THE Exports from Bahia in 1846 were as follows :

ARTICLES.	Quantity,	Value.	Average Price.	TOTAL VALUE.
		dls. rials.	dls. rials.	dls. rials.
Sugar.....arobas	1,980,579	3,801,831 816	1 920	
Cotton.....do.	111,702	702,672 421	6 290	
Coffee.....do.	58,896	205,724 139	3 493	
Hides.....do.	165,998	437,791 634	2 631	
Tobacco.....do.	231,343	457,708 092	1 978	
Rum.....pipes	7,846	243,742 803	31 066	
Cabinet wood.....pieces	5,503	23,362 521	4 244	
Total value.....				5,872,834 426

THOSE Articles were Exported as follows :

COUNTRIES.	Sugar.	Cotton.	Coffee.	Hides.	Tobacco.	Rum.	Cabinet Wood.
	arobas.	arobas.	arobas.	arobas.	arobas.	pipes.	pieces.
Great Britain.....	246,886	90,622	14,235	8,601	33,263	508	2,125
France.....	42,677	15,376	16,167	23,960	152	192	618
Hanseatic cities.....	887,433	1,998	6,795	6,866	13,423	1,285	993
Portugal.....	123,638	659	3,111	34,485	89,518	412	826
Holland.....	8,625	1,006	1,530	5,902			
Italy.....	76,292	68	6,893	53,861	32,409	556	150
Denmark.....	18,869						
Austria.....	364,776	1,465	4,931	25,178	6,827	722	39
Spain.....	6,437	..	..	1,594	8,916	352	
River Plate.....	4,521	..	89	..	1,485	2,281	718
United States of North America.....	21	..	34	5,551	..	..	6
Sweden.....	200,232	508	857	..	..	160	
Coast of Africa.....	172	..	4,254	..	45,350	1,372	28
Total.....	1,980,579	111,702	58,896	165,998	231,343	7,846	5,503

NAVIGATION of Bahia in 1843.

C O U N T R I E S.	E N T E R E D.		D E P A R T E D.		T O T A L.		
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	
England and its possessions.....	68	16,254	68	15,960	136	32,214	
Portugal and its possessions.....	42	9,554	23	5,031	65	14,585	
Hanseatic towns.....	13	4,275	18	5,558	31	9,833	
Austria.....	8	2,966	16	5,015	24	7,981	
France.....	21	5,036	10	2,716	31	7,752	
Africa.....	16	3,158	24	3,953	40	7,111	
Uruguay.....	15	3,045	16	2,949	31	5,994	
Sweden and Norway.....	8	1,872	17	3,749	25	5,621	
United States.....	13	2,263	8	2,373	21	4,636	
Sardinian States.....	12	1,933	12	2,327	24	4,260	
Two Sicilies.....	7	2,579	5	1,483	12	4,062	
Argentine republic.....	10	2,324	4	644	14	2,968	
Denmark.....	2	757	3	940	5	1,697	
Spain.....	5	1,211	1	237	6	1,448	
Other countries.....	11	2,236	3	576	14	2,812	
Foreign whalers.....	4	1,312	3	943	7	2,255	
Total for 1843.....	255	60,775	231	54,454	486	115,229	
Years.....	1842.....	258	57,434	252	58,206	510	115,640
	1841.....	289	62,737	304	70,955	593	133,692
	1840.....	283	80,079	309	90,029	592	170,108
	1839.....	223	48,187	252	72,133	475	120,320
	1838.....	300	63,481	349	99,375	649	162,856
	1837.....	175	39,617	192	55,772	367	95,389

The coasting trade between Bahia and other Brazilian ports in 1843, employed 921 ships, 104,563 tons; or 90 vessels less than in 1842.

THE Coasting Trade Employed during the following Years, viz :

YEARS.	Vessels.	Measurement.
	number.	tons.
1841.....	1,134	118,355
1840.....	1,450	140,153
1839.....	1,240	112,851
1838.....	1,345	139,263
1837.....	844	69,512

In 1843 the Coasting Trade of Bahia was as follows, viz. :—

C O U N T R I E S.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.
With Rio Janeiro.....	158	30,235
„ Sergipe-del-Rey.....	270	21,236
„ Ports of the Province of Bahia....	253	16,956
„ Rio Grande do Sul.....	78	15,328
„ Pernambuco	72	11,405
„ other ports.....	90	9,403
Total.....	921	104,563

IMPORTS and Exports of Bahia in 1843.—French Consul's Return.

C O U N T R I E S.	Importations.	Exportations.	TOTAL.
	fr.	fr.	fr.
England.....	15,307,047	6,740,242	22,047,289
Hanseatic towns.....	1,547,732	3,334,472	4,882,204
Portugal.....	2,253,513	1,188,917	3,442,430
Austria.....	553,384	2,654,002	3,207,386
France.....	2,342,336	851,859	3,194,195
Africa.....	262,956	1,455,743	1,718,699
Sweden and Norway.....	109,763	1,550,751	1,660,514
Sardinian States.....	586,884	991,926	1,578,810
United States.....	750,353	54,637	804,990
Two Sicilies.....	226,302	439,877	666,179
Denmark.....		411,562	411,562
Other countries.....	342,410	456,536	798,946
Fishers.....	404,832		404,832
Total for 1843..	24,687,512	20,130,524	44,818,036
Years.... { 1842.....	27,443,603	19,068,948	46,512,551
{ 1841.....	28,858,000	18,342,000	47,200,000
Average or 1834 to 1840.....	26,032,000	23,041,000	49,073,000

RETURNS of the British and Foreign Trade of Bahia, during the Years 1844 and 1845.

NATIONS.	ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.			ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.		
	1844			1844			1845			1845		
	Vessels.	Ton-nage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Ton-nage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Ton-nage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Ton-nage.	Crews.
	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.	No.	tons.	No.
British	99	22,886	1252	93	21,545	1177	107	26,874	1388	109	27,216	1417
Sardinian.....	44	8,039	..	43	8,018	..	65	11,702	..	53	9,541	..
Swedish and Norwegian..	34	9,204	415	30	10,810	427	56	15,120	688	57	14,896	682
American.....	31	6,512	488	27	5,948	451	31	6,071	340	28	5,532	318
Portuguese.....	27	4,682	396	27	4,680	336	29	5,038	388	26	6,273	394
French.....	16	3,400	232	15	2,891	209	22	4,741	292	25	5,541	331
Danish.....	15	5,530	..	12	4,627	..	26	5,907	306	24	6,253	290
Austrian.....	11	3,471	140	17	5,629	218	14	6,044	242	16	6,704	212
Hanseatic.....	7	2,257	..	8	2,983	..	10	2,560	133	11	3,233	157
Belgium.....	4	728	..	3	476	..	3	886	37	3	770	36
Sicilian.....	4	1,223	60	4	1,223	60	4	1,339	55	4	1,349	55
Prussian	2	949	..	4	1,531	..	5	1,455	64	5	1,455	64
Russian.....	2	470	..	2	470	..	1	483	13	2	1,206	30
Hanoverian....	1	339	11	1	339	11	2	480	21	1	200	11
Dutch.....	1	144	8	..	..	..	1	361	18	2	498	26
Peruvian.....	1	364	18	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Spanish.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	286	24	1	96	11
Oriental.....	1	113	10	2	539	23	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total.....	300	70,111	3030	288	71,709	2912	378	89,347	4009	367	90,783	4034

PLACES ARRIVED FROM.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	PLACES DEPARTED TO.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.		number.	tons.
Of these 107 British vessels, that arrived, in 1845, there were from—			Of these 109 British vessels that departed, in 1845, there were for—		
Great Britain.. with general cargoes	37	9,204	Great Britain.. with general cargoes	32	8,342
Do. do. coals	4	1,169	Do. do. sugar	27	6,043
Do. do. salt	2	682	Do. do. sugar and cotton	5	1,449
Do. do. ballast	1	408	Do. do. hides	1	186
			Do. do. ballast	1	648
Total from Great Britain..	44	11,463	Total for Great Britain....	66	16,668
Sydney..... general cargoes	3	1,256	Rio de Janeiro..... cod-fish	1	146
Gaspee..... cod-fish	1	144	Do. do. ballast	2	261
Halifax..... do.	1	203	Maccio..... do.	5	1,344
St. John's..... do.	6	1,209	Buenos Ayres..... salt	1	212
Little Bay..... do.	1	181	Pernambuco..... ballast	2	463
New Zealand..... general cargo	1	189	Valparaiso..... do.	2	402
Rio de Janeiro..... ballast	16	3,739	Para..... do.	1	365
Rio Grande..... hides	1	186	Parahiba..... do.	1	102
Pernambuco..... general cargo	1	204	Patagonia..... do.	2	565
Do. ballast	5	1,411	Honduras..... do.	1	280
Monte Video..... do.	1	203	Newfoundland..... do.	1	181
Buenos Ayres..... do.	2	557	Cape of Good Hope..... sugar	2	293
Lima..... general cargo	1	950	Sydney..... do.	2	570
San Blas..... do.	1	648	Do. general cargoes	3	1,275
Possession Island..... ballast	1	155	Northern Ports..... ballast	1	179
Icaboe..... do.	1	228	Hamburg..... sugar	5	1,373
Loanda..... do.	1	104	Do. general cargoes	2	531
St. Helena..... do.	9	1,920	Stettin..... sugar	3	825
Cape de Verds..... general cargo	1	335	Gibraltar..... general cargo	1	287
Cadiz..... salt	5	1,214	Do. tobacco	1	78
Gibraltar..... fruit, &c.	2	155	Genoa..... general cargo	1	149
Do. general cargo	1	55	Trieste..... sugar	2	405
Jersey..... do.	1	164	Constantinople..... rum	1	204
Total from other parts....	63	15,410	Total for other parts.....	43	10,548
Total from Great Britain..	44	11,463	Total for Great Britain....	66	16,668
Grand Total.....	107	26,873	Grand total.....	109	27,216

Imports consist principally of the following commodities ; viz., from Great Britain and her colonies :

Ale and porter; anchors; arms; bees'-wax; blacking; butter; candles, tallow; ditto, sperm; chain cables; cheese; coals; coal tar; cod-fish; copper; cordage; cutlery; drugs; earthenware; glass; glass-bottles; gunpowder; hams; hats; iron in bars; ditto in hoops; ironmongery; lead; leather; linseed oil; manufactures; nails; paints; paper; pianos; pickles; pitch; provisions; saddlery; sail cloth; saltpetre; soap; steel; tar; tin plates; white lead; wearing apparel, &c.

From France.—Arms; brandy; butter; candles, tallow; ditto, sperm; cheese; drugs; glass; glass-bottles; haberdashery; hats; leather; manufactures; olive oil; paper; perfumery; raisins; saddlery; wearing apparel; wine.

From Portugal.—Bees'-wax; candles, tallow; drugs; earthenware; hams; hats; ironmongery; leather; nails; olive oil; salt; snuff; vinegar; wine.

From the United States.—Candles, tallow; ditto sperm; cod-fish; cordage; deals; drugs; flour; furniture; gin; hams; manufactures; provisions; resin; soap; tar; tea; tobacco; whale oil.

From Sardinia.—Brandy; candles, tallow; drugs; manufactured silk; olive oil; paper; raisins; steel; vermicelli; wine.

From the Hanseatic cities.—Brandy; candles, tallow; cheese; coal tar; cordage; demijohns; drugs; gin; copper; glass and glass bottles; hams; ironmongery; leather; linseed oil; manufactures; paints; pianos; provisions; sail-cloth; tar; tin plates.

From Denmark.—Cheese; cordage, demijohns; gin; linseed oil; manufactures; pitch; provisions; sail cloth; tar.

From Holland.—Cheese; demijohns; gin; glass; ditto bottles; linseed oil; manufactures; white lead; window-glass; zinc.

From Spain.—Brandy; drugs; olive oil; paper; raisins; salt; soap; wine.

From Austria.—Flour; manufactures; olive oil, can; soap; steel; wine.

From Sweden.—Deals; masts; mess beef; iron; pitch; tar.

From Sicily.—Brandy; drugs; olive oil; raisins; salt; soap; wine; brimstone.

From Monte Video.—Candles, tallow; hides; horns; jerked beef; lard; tallow.

The general regulations with respect to trade at this port are the following:

Merchandise imported is first landed at the custom-house, or bonded warehouses, where bulky articles are allowed to remain one month, and others four months, for which accommodation a charge is made of three and a half per cent on its valuation. If not removed at the expiration of these respective periods, an additional charge is made of one quarter per cent per month.

Three months' credit is granted to merchants, by giving security for the amount of duties, for which they pay an interest of six per cent per annum.

The greater part of the commodities imported are sold on credit, varying from two to eight months, according to the stock in the market. Although these credits are stipulated, the payments generally depend on the season when the crops are brought for sale, consequently merchants are obliged to have an immense capital outstanding in this country, and finally, are frequently obliged to receive produce in payment, at higher prices than it might be bought for in cash.

All that produce, which is not received in payment for this merchandise, is bought for cash. It is deposited, on its arrival from the interior, in bonded warehouses, whence it is shipped, after paying the export duty.

There are no privileges of importation in favour of ships belonging to this country, they are on the same footing as foreign vessels, with the exception of the coasting trade, which is exclusively carried on by Brazilian vessels. There is no difference made in the duties on goods, whether imported in Brazilian or foreign vessels.

Statement of Port charges at Bahia on all Vessels Foreign or National.

Tonnage duty on vessels which discharge and load here	900 per ton.
„ on vessels which enter in ballast and load here	450 „
or vice versâ	450 „
„ on vessels which enter and sail in ballast, or call	30 per ton edpary.
for refreshments	30 per ton edpary.

Vessels which enter the port in distress pay no tonnage duty.

Hospital duty—for every person belonging to the crew . . . 640 „

Bahia, at present, is the only port of this province wherein goods may be warehoused on importation, and afterwards exported.

Weights and Measures.—Quintal, four arrobas; arroba, thirty-two pounds; canada, two imperial gallons; alqueire, seven-eighths of a bushel.

PROVINCE OF ESPIRITU SANTO AND PORTO SEGURO.—Of these united districts, which extend from the frontiers of the provinces of Rio Janeiro, and that of Bahia, we have very little recent information. They are the least known and the least commercial in Brazil. No author of much repute, except Prince Maximilian, of Nieuwied has traversed the interior, and we have in the general description of the country, briefly given parts of his information. Neither of these provinces appear to have any foreign trade, yet they have a sea coast of more than 400 miles in extent.

Espirito Santo comprehends about three-fourths of the capitania, granted in 1534, to Vasco Fernandez Coutinho, as a remuneration for his services in Asia. It extends from the River Capabuan (or Itabapua, the boundary

of Rio Janeiro) to the Rio Doce, which separates it from Porto Seguro, on the north. On the west it borders on Minas Geraes.

"The lofty and naked ridge of Middle Brazil," remarks Prince Maximilian, "in the provinces of Minas Geraes, Goyaz, and Pernambuco, is divided from the eastern coast by a broad tract of high forests, which extend from Rio de Janeiro to the Bay of All Saints (Bahia), about eleven degrees of latitude, and which are not yet taken possession of by the Portuguese settlers; only a few roads have hitherto been opened, with infinite labour, along the rivers that traverse them. In these forests where the primitive inhabitants, who are pressed upon at every other point, have till now enjoyed a serene and peaceful abode, we may still find those people in their original state."

Cazal says, that of the whole maritime ports of Brazil Espiritu Santo has made the least progress; and that the civilised population is almost entirely limited to the sea-coast. The salubrity of the climate and fertility of the soil, would appear to render this province susceptible of the most prosperous improvement. But the greater part seems to be covered with original forests. Brazil-wood, the cedar, the sassafras-tree, and various other resinous and aromatic species, and Peruvian balsam are all said to be abundant.

From Itabapuana northward, to the banks of the Itape-mirim, a distance of little more than twenty miles, the district was not long since so dangerous, that a *quartel*, or military post was established for protection against the Puries. On the south bank of the Itape-mirim, there was built a village inhabited partly by small planters, fishermen, and a few mechanics. This river is narrow, but a small trade has been carried on, in sugar, cotton, rice, millet, and timber. The Serra de Itape-mirim, was celebrated for the works for washing gold, called Minas de Castello, five days' journey up the river. That district was, however, so molested by the Tapuyas, that the few Portuguese settled there left it about forty years ago, to reside in the town. The country higher up was inhabited chiefly by Puries, and Botucudoes, called "the real tyrants of the wilderness," also come down occasionally to plunder.

Prince Maximilian traversed the wilds by the route which leads from Minas de Castello to the frontier of Minas Geraes, a distance of about twenty-three leagues.

On the first day's journey from Itape-mirim they reached the Fazenda de Aga, near the *morro* of Aga, a lofty, round mountain. Near Aga is the *povoação* of Piuma (or Ipiuma), where there is a wooden bridge over the rivulet, three hundred paces in length; "a real curiosity in these parts." After riding through a hilly country of woods and meadows, they reached the Villa Nova de Benevente, at the foot of a hill on the north bank of the Iritiba or Reritigba, and founded by the Jesuits, who had collected at this place 6000 Indians, their church and convent is still seen on the eminence commanding the town. It was the largest *aldeia* on this coast, till the Indians were destroyed, or driven away by the hard labour exacted of them.

Villa de Goaraparim, the next town, was found to be a poor place. The houses are only of one story, and the streets are unpaved. The district was said

to contain about 3000 souls. The road from Benevente passes through magnificent forests to the Atlantic.

"At one place," says Prince Maximilian, "we met with an extremely beautiful grove, consisting entirely of *cari* palms. Young vigorous trees of this species, from twenty to thirty feet high, rise with their straight, dark brown stems, surrounded with thorny rings. Their beautifully feathered leaves screened the damp ground from the scorching noon-tide sun; while younger ones which had not yet any stem, formed the brush-wood, above which old dead palms, withered and decayed, projected like broken columns. Upon these trees, devoted to destruction, the solitary, yellow-bellied woodpecker, or beautiful species with the red head and neck, was at work. The flower of the flame-coloured heliconia covered the low bushes near us, round which twined a beautiful convolvulus with the finest azure blue-bells. In this magnificent forest, the ligneous creeping plants, again showed themselves in all their originality, with their curvatures and singular forms. We contemplated with admiration the sublimity of this wilderness, which was animated only by toucans, parrots, and other birds."

Beyond this wood, were some fishermen's huts, the *poço de Obu*; and then another containing sixty or eighty families of fishermen, called *Muaipé*. He halted again at Goaraparim; the next day he reached a little fishing hamlet on the coast, called *Ponta da Fruta*, and on the day following, five leagues further, through marshy meadows and woodland, brought him to Villa Velha, a wretched place on the Rio de Espiritu Santo. This river is of considerable magnitude, and it is said to be navigable to the first fall, a distance of forty miles, and the tide runs up about twelve miles, to the mouth of the River Serra, which joins it on the left bank. Several other streams fall into it.

On a high, conical hill, covered with wood, immediately joining the town, there stood at that time the Franciscan convent of Nossa Senhora da Penha, one of the richest in Brazil, dependent on the Abbey of St. Bento at Rio:—

"It is said," adds Prince Maximilian, "to possess a wonder-working image of the Madonna, for which reason numerous pilgrims resort thither; but at the period of our visit, there were only two ecclesiastics on the spot. It is well worth the trouble to ascend the steep eminence, in order to enjoy the inexpressibly grand prospect which there offers itself to the view. It overlooks the wide expanse of the ocean, and, on the land side, fine chains of mountains and various peaks, with interjacent valleys, from which the broad river issues in the most picturesque manner imaginable."

About half a league from Villa Velha, on the opposite side of the bay, stands the capital of the province, Villa da Victoria. It is built, according to Cazal, "on an amphitheatrical site, on the western side of an island, fifteen miles in circumference," and is thus described by the Prince of Nieuwied.

"The *cidade de Nossa Senhora da Victoria* is a pretty, neat place, with considerable buildings, constructed in the old Portuguese style, with balconies or wooden lattices, neat paved streets, a tolerably large town hall, and a Jesuits' convent, since occupied by the governor, who has a company of regular troops at his disposal. Besides several convents, there are a church, four chapels, and a hospital (*misericórdia*). The town is, however, rather dull, and visitors, being very uncommon, are objects of great curiosity. The coasting trade is not unimportant; several vessels are in consequence always lying here, and frigates can sail up to the town. The neighbouring *fazendas* produce sugar, mandioc, flour, and rice, bananas, and other articles which are exported along the coast. Several forts protect the entrance of the fine River Espiritu Santo; one directly at the mouth; a second battery, built of stone, higher up, with eight iron guns; and still

further up on the hill between the latter and the town, a third battery of seventeen or eighteen guns, a few of which are brass. The town is built rather unevenly, on pleasant hills; and the river flowing past it, is here everywhere enclosed within high mountains, partly consisting of rocks, which are in many places naked and steep, and covered with creeping plants. The beautiful surface of the broad river is broken by several verdant islands, and the eye, as it follows its course up the country, everywhere finds an agreeable point of repose in lofty, verdant, wood-covered mountains."

The River Jucu falls into the ocean about three miles to the south of the entrance of the bay; it abounds in fish. About four leagues up this river is the large fazenda of Araçatiba. The great forest of Araçatiba, through which lies the route to the fazenda, is described as a dismal wilderness. Emerging from it, the travellers came into an open country, where they were agreeably surprised all at once to see a large white building, presenting an extensive front of two stories, with two small towers, situated on a beautiful green level spot at the foot of the lofty morro. Near the house was a church; and at the foot of a hill were the negro huts, the sugar-mill, and the farm buildings. The estate employed 400 negroes. About a league distant, on a romantic spot on the River Jucu, entirely surrounded with lofty primeval forests, was a second fazenda, called Coroaba, not far from which was the military post of St. Agostinho. The government had settled there about forty families, who came from the Azores. These people, who lived in great poverty, bitterly complained of their wretched condition, splendid promises having been made to them but not performed.

Proceeding along the coast, two days' journey from Villa da Victoria, they came to Villa Nova de Almeida, a large village of civilised Indians, founded by the Jesuits on elevated ground near the mouth of the Rio dos Reis Magos (river of the royal magi). In no other parish of the province had the number of native Indians increased so much as this. It had a large stone church, and contained in its whole district, nine leagues in circumference, about 1200 souls.

"The inhabitants of the village," adds Prince Maximilian, "are chiefly Indians, but there are also some Portuguese and negroes. Many possess houses here, to which they come from their plantations on Sundays and holidays only. The Jesuits here formerly gave instruction in the *lingoa geral* (general language, *i. e.* of the Indians). The Indians derived their subsistence from their plantations of mandioc and maize; they also exported some wood and earthenware, and carry on a fishery, which is not inconsiderable, on the sea and the River Sahuinha, or Dos Reis Magos, which runs past the village.

"To the north of the Sahuinha, the whole coast is covered with thick woods. In a few hours you come to the River Pyrahassu (great Fish River). Here, at the *barra*, or mouth, is a hamlet of a few houses, called Aldea Velha; and rather higher up the river, a considerable village was founded by the Jesuits. The chief subsistence of the aborigines was derived from shell and other fish, whence great heaps of shells are still found on the bank of the river."

After crossing the Pyrahassu, here a deep, broad, and rapid stream, the travellers entered a magnificent forest; on emerging from which, their road lay for four leagues along an uninteresting tract of coast, broken by a succession of small promontories and inlets, to the *quartel do Riacho*, a military post, from whence, by a fatiguing journey of eight leagues through deep sand, they reached the *quar-*

tel da Degencia, at the mouth of the Rio Doce, the boundary of the province, and the most considerable river between Rio de Janeiro and Bahia. At a short distance from the coast, between the quartel do Riacho and the Doce, extends the *Lagoa dos Indios*.

The River Doce (sweet river) assumes that name after the confluence of the Rio Piranga with the Ribeiro do Carmo. It flows through a considerable extent of country, forming several small falls, three of which succeeding each other at short intervals, are called the *Escadinhas* (stairs). Two miles below these falls, the Doce receives the Mandu, which comes from the interior, running north-north-east between woods, and is navigable for canoes.

"The banks of the beautiful river, Doce," says Prince Maximilian, "are covered with thick forests, which are the haunt of a great number of different animals. Here are frequently found the anta, or American tapir, two kinds of wild swine (the *caytetu* or peccary, and the *porco a quechada branca*), two species of deer, and above seven varieties of the cat kind, among which the spotted ounce and the black tiger are the largest and most dangerous. But the rude, savage Botucudo, the aboriginal inhabitant of this country, is far more formidable than all those beasts of prey, and is the terror of these impenetrable forests. This part of the country is still very thinly peopled. The Conde de Linhares, late minister of state, had particularly directed his attention to this fertile and beautiful country. He established new military stations, and built the village now called after him, Linhares, eight or ten leagues up the river, at the place where the first military station had formerly been. He sent thither deserters and other criminals, to people the new colony; and these settlements would certainly have prospered in a short time, had not death too soon carried off that active minister."

Prince Maximilian, desirous of exploring the banks of this river, embarked on the following morning in a long canoe rowed by six soldiers:—

"In order to ascend the Rio Doce, when it is at its height, four men at least are necessary, who propel the canoe with long poles (*varas*). As there are everywhere shallow places, which in the dry season appear as sand-banks, the poles can always reach them, even when the water is high; and with the most favourable combination of circumstances, it is possible to reach Linhares in one day, but not till late in the evening.

"The weather was very fine, and when we had become accustomed to the rocking of the narrow canoe, caused by the soldiers walking backwards and forwards to push it along, we found the excursion very agreeable. When it was quite daylight, we saw the broad surface of the rapid stream glistening in the morning sun. The distant banks were so thickly covered with gloomy forests, that in the whole of the long tract which we passed there was not a single open spot which would have afforded room even for a house. Numerous islands of various sizes and forms rise above the surface of the water; they are covered with ancient trees of the most luxuriant verdure. The water of the Rio Doce, when at its height, is turbid and yellowish, and is universally asserted by the inhabitants to generate fevers. It abounds in fish; even the saw-fish (*pristis serra*) comes up far above Linhares, and into the *lagoa* of Juparanan, where it is frequently caught.

"From the forests we heard the cries of numerous monkeys, particularly the *barbados*, the *saiassus*, &c. Here it was that we first saw in their wild state the magnificent macaws (*psittacus macao*, Linn.), which are among the chief ornaments of the Brazilian forests; we heard their loud screaming voices, and saw these splendid birds soaring above the crowns of the lofty *sapucaya* trees. We recognised them at a distance by their long tails, and their glowing red plumage shone with dazzling splendour in the beams of the unclouded sun. Parroquets, maracanas, maitaccas, tiribas, curicas, camutangas, nandayas, and other species of parrots, flew, loudly screaming, in numerous flocks from bank to bank; and the large and stately Muscovy duck (*Anas moschata*, Linn.) alighted on the branch of a cecropia, in the margin of the forest on the bank of the river. The

black skimmer (*rynchops nigrar* Linn.) sat motionless and with contracted neck upon the sand-banks : toucans and the çurucuas (*Trogon viridis*, Linn.) uttered their loud cries.

"The banks of the islands and of the channel were for the most part thickly overgrown with the high fan-like reed, the sheath of whose flower is used by the Botocudos for their arrows.

"We proceeded up the river past several islands, and into a channel between the Ilha Comprida and the north bank of the river. The current was by no means so strong here, but then we met with many fallen trunks of trees and large branches, which we had to clear away before we could advance further. The bushes and lofty ancient trees, which border this channel, present the most diversified and magnificent spectacle. Various kinds of cocoas, especially the elegant *palmitto* (in other parts called *jissara*), with its tall, slender stem, and the small bright, green, beautiful feathery crown, adorn these dark forests, from the recesses of which the calls of unknown birds strike the ear. Below, close to the water were some splendid flowers.

"A *jacaré*,* quietly basking in the sun fled at the sound of our oars. We soon came to several islands, upon which the people of Linhares had made plantations; for it is only on these islands that they are quite safe from the savages, who have no canoes, and therefore cannot cross, except where the breadth and depth of the river are inconsiderable. The officer called guarda mor resides in the Ilha do Boi (Ox Island), and the priest of Linhares on the Ilha do Bom Jesus. Towards noon we came in sight of Linhares, and landed on the north bank."

By order of the Count Linhares, the buildings were erected in a square, upon a spot cleared of wood, near the bank of the river, and on a steep cliff of clay.†

The commanding officer at Linhares was obliged to make the tour of all the posts, a journey of ninety leagues, once a month.

Not far from Linhares, on the north side of the Doce is the *Lagoa de Juparanan*, communicating with the river by a deep channel, about sixty feet broad, and a league and a half in length. This lake, which is surrounded by hilly banks, is about seven leagues in length from south-east to north-west, half a league broad, and from sixteen to eighteen leagues in circumference. Its depth is, in many places from eight to twelve fathoms.

THE DISTRICT OF PORTO SEGURO is bounded by the rivers Doce and Belmonte on the south and north, its western boundaries are Minas Geraes. It lies

* The *jacaré* of the east coast of Brazil is far inferior to the gigantic crocodile of the old world, and even to those met with in the countries of South America nearer to the equator. This species is not feared; they are never more than eight or nine feet in length.

† "In order to protect this settlement in general from the attacks and cruelties of the Botocudos, eight stations had been established, which are pushed forward in different directions into the great forests; they are also destined to protect the commercial intercourse which has been attempted to open up the river with Minas Geraes. Soldiers have come down from that province in sufficient numbers, well armed and provided with the defensive coat, called *gibao d'armas*. These coats, some of which are kept at all the stations, are an indispensable covering against the arrows, which the savages discharge with great force. They are wide, made of cotton, and thickly lined with several layers of cotton wadding, have a high stiff collar, which covers the neck, and short sleeves that protect the upper part of the arm: they come down to the knee, but are very inconvenient, on account of their weight, especially in hot weather. The strongest arrow, even when discharged near at hand, does not easily penetrate such a coat, and it never has force enough to inflict any serious wound. I directed one of my hunters to fire at one with a rifle, at the distance of eighty paces, and the ball penetrated both sides of the coat. It appeared, however, on further trials, that the largest shot fired at the distance of sixty paces, fell flattened to the ground, without penetrating, and that these coats are, therefore, a sufficient defence against arrows."

between 19 deg. 33 min. and 15 deg. 25 min. south latitude,* and is consequently about sixty-five leagues in length. It was on this part of the coast that Cabral first landed, and took possession, for the crown of Portugal, of Brazil. "But if," remarks Mr. Southey, "the port from which the province is named be the place where Cabral first anchored, his ships must have been of no considerable burden, or the depth of the port must have diminished, for within the bar it shallows to twelve feet."

The town of Santa Cruz was begun upon Cabralia Bay (the Bay of Cabral), but the settlement was transferred to the banks of the Joao de Tyba, four miles to the northward, in consequence, Cazal states, of its more favourable soil. The Jesuits, who founded a college in the capital in 1553, with a view to prosecute their labours among the Indians of this province, left only two aldeias entirely Indian, at the time of their expulsion. In fact, less progress has been made in civilising the aborigines than cultivating the soil in Porto Seguro, than even in Espiritu Santo, still more backward in cultivation. The civilised inhabitants are almost wholly confined to the neighbourhood of the coast, and the interior is almost a continued forest abounding with the finest timber.

From the banks of the Rio Doce to the San Matthæus, a wilderness extends along the coast, twenty leagues in length; for the greater part of the way not even fresh-water is said to be found. At two leagues from Regencia, is the *quartel de Monserra*, near which is a long, narrow lake, called *Lagoa de Juparanan da Praya*, communicating with the sea by a broad channel, which is dry at low water. Some leagues further, in a small, low valley, is another lake, called Piranga; and beyond this, the road crosses the *Barra seca*, the outlet of a third lake, abounding in fish. In this neighbourhood are extensive campos. Turtle frequent the coast.†

Above the bar of the river is the town of San Matthæus, situated in

* On the authority of Mr. Lindley, which agrees with Prince Maximilian's map, Mr. Henderson says, between 15 deg. 54 min. and 19 deg. 31 min. south latitude.

† Cazal mentions only one lake between the Doce and the San Matthæus, which he calls the Lake Tapada, and describes to be "of considerable length from east to west, but very narrow."—Henderson.

Prince Maximilian says, "While our people were employed in fetching some sea-water, and in picking up drift wood on the beach, we found to our great surprise, at a short distance from our fire, a prodigious sea-turtle (*testudo mydas*, Linn.) which was just going to deposit its eggs. Our presence did not disturb it; we could touch it and even lift it up; but to do this it required the united strength of four men. The creature manifested no sign of uneasiness but a kind of hissing, nearly like the noise made by the geese when any one approaches their young. It continued to work, as it had commenced, with its fin-like hinder feet, digging in the sand a cylindrical hole from eight to twelve inches broad; it threw the earth very regularly and dexterously, and, as it were, keeping time on both sides, and began immediately after to deposit its eggs.

"One of our soldiers laid himself all along on the ground near the purveyor of our kitchen, and took the eggs out of the hole as fast as the turtle deposited them; and in this manner we collected 100 eggs in about ten minutes. We considered whether we should add this fine animal to our collections; but the great weight of the turtle, which would have required a mule for itself alone, and the difficulty of loading such an awkward burden, made us resolve to spare its life, and to content ourselves with its eggs.

"Those huge animals, the *midas* and the soft-shelled turtle (*testudo mydas* and *coriacea*) as well as the *testudo caretta*, or *cauanna*, deposit their eggs in the sand in the warmest months in the year, particularly in this uninhabited part of the coast between the Riacho and the Mucuri."

the midst of swamps, which render the place far from healthy; but the fertility of the soil has attracted numerous settlers to this quarter. "As one of the newest towns in the province of Porto Seguro," says Prince Maximilian, "it is in a thriving condition. It then contained about a hundred houses, and has in its district nearly 3000 inhabitants, both whites and people of colour." The inhabitants cultivate mandioc, and export its flour, and also planks from the forests. Here the orange, the lemon, and the water-lemon flourish luxuriantly. Eight leagues from the town of San Matthæus, up the river, is the station of Galveyas.

The River San Matthæus, originally called the Cricare, has its source in Minas Geraes, and descends through the forests, forming several small falls and receiving in its course several streams. Cazal mentions the large River Cotache as joining it on the left margin, soon after the last fall. The northern bank is frequented by Patachoes, Cumanachoes, Machacalies, and other tribes, as far as Porto Seguro. The southern bank is believed to be chiefly occupied by Botucudoes. In this river is found manati. Fish of various kinds is said to abound.

About half a league from San Matthæus, the little River Guajinteba falls into the sea. On this river is the fazenda of *As Itaiúnas*. Beyond this, three small streams, the Riacho Doce, the Rio das Ostras, and the Riacho da Barra Nova, also discharge into the Atlantic. The Villa de San Joze do Portalegre, situated at the mouth of the Mucuri, is distant, according to Cazal, nearly thirty miles from the San Matthæus.

This town is commonly called *Portalegre*. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, and are very poor; but some trade has been attracted to it. Almost all the fine species of wood found on the eastern coast of Brazil abound in the forests of this district. About a day's journey and a half up the river, a fazenda had been established by the Conde da Barca, at a spot called, from the number of araras or maccaws, Morro d'Arara, on the banks of a spacious lake. Here, Prince Maximilian took up his residence for several months.

"In these solitary wildernesses," he says, "the chase was our most agreeable, most useful, and indeed only occupation; and though the insecurity of the forests laid us under many restraints, and obliged us to make it a rule never to go out, except in sufficiently numerous parties, yet we always procured abundance of game. Whenever we went out of our huts in the morning, we heard the loud drum-like voice of the barbados (*mycetes*), and the hoarse growl of the gigo, another hitherto nondescript monkey; the maccaws, which flew loudly screaming over our huts, in pairs, threes, or fives, joined in this noisy concert, which re-echoed through the woods; and we were in like manner surrounded by flocks of parrots, of schaiúas, maitacas, jurus (*psittacus pulverulentus*, Linn.), curicas, and many other kinds."

Five leagues to the north of the Mucuri, is the River Peruhipe, on the southern margin of which, four miles above its mouth, is the little town of Villa Viçosa, consisting of about 100 houses, with a church and *camara*, pleasantly situated among groves of cocoa-palms, which give an interesting character to the landscape. The inhabitants carry on some trade in mandioca flour, which is exported in small coasting-vessels.

Caravellas, situated on the northern margin of the river of the same name, about five miles from the sea, and ten miles north of the Peruhipe. It has straight streets, intersecting each other at right angles. The houses are neatly built, but, for the most part, of one story only. The church stands in an open spot near the *Casa da Camara*. It carries on a trade in mandioca flour, &c. Small vessels from Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio, and the other ports on the east coast, are lying here. An arm of the Peruhipe communicates with the Caravellas, affording a passage from Viçosa.* The banks are covered with mangrove-trees, the bark of which is used in tanning, and groves of cocoa-palms.

The Barra Velha, "is the old mouth of the River Alcobaça." On its northern bank, not far from its mouth, stands the Villa de Alcobaça, built on a white sandy plain. Here, as well as along the whole coast, some trade is carried on in mandioca flour. The ancient forests on its banks are, or have been, inhabited by Patachoes and Machacaries, who, from this place northward, have peaceably visited the Portuguese settlements, offering wax or game in exchange for necessaries. On the northern bank of this river, several leagues up the country, is the fazenda of *Ponte do Gentio*. At the time of Prince Maximilian's visit, some Indian families resided here, with six families of *Ilhores* (islanders), as the inhabitants of the Azores are called, nine Chinese, some negro slaves, and a Portuguese steward. The Chinese were some of those who were brought to Rio by the Conde de Linhares.

There are several other fazendas in this neighbourhood, on the right bank of the river; but, from an eminence which commands the village, the whole country presents the appearance of uninterrupted forests.

Five leagues to the north of the Rio Alcobaça, or Itanhen, the Rio do Prado, or Sucurucu (written by Cazal, Jucurucu), falls into the Atlantic. The Villa do Prado, originally a settlement of Indians, has a little coasting trade with *farinha* (mandioca flour), a little sugar, and other produce.† The river has a bar which is passed by loaded sumacas.

The coast north of Prado exhibits cliffs of clay resting on a ferruginous

* Mr. Lindley says, that the River Caravellos (or of caravels, an ancient three-mast vessel), "has a formidable and dangerous bar, that will admit vessels of twelve feet only; but, when over the bar, they have ten fathoms water."

† While detained by heavy rains in this "dreary, sandy spot," Prince Maximilian saw numbers of Patachoes, who, as well as the Machacaries, inhabit the forests on the Sucurucu. They are thus described:—

"They entered the town stark naked, with their arms in their hands, and were immediately surrounded by a crowd of people. They brought large balls of black wax for sale, and we procured a number of bows and arrows of them, in exchange for knives and red handkerchiefs. These savages had nothing striking in their appearance; they were neither painted, nor otherwise disfigured: some were short, most of them of the middle size, of rather slender make, with large bony faces, and coarse features. Only a few of them had handkerchiefs tied round them, which had been given them on some former occasion. Their leader wore a red woollen cap and blue breeches which he had procured somewhere. Food was their chief desire. Some flour and cocoa-nuts were given to them: the latter they opened very dexterously, with a small axe. In bartering, some of them were very intelligent. They asked chiefly for knives or hatchets; but one of them immediately got a red handkerchief tied round his neck. A cocoa-nut fixed upon a pole, was set

sandstone; the summits are covered with wood, and numerous valleys have a little stream flowing to the sea through dark-green forests. On all the rocks along this coast, there are shell-fish which afford a purple juice. In some of these valleys are fazendas. To the north of the point of land called Comechatiba, or Currubichatiba,* a day's distance from Prado, the sea is again bordered by high cliffs and rocks, and the route leads over the heights. A league and a half from Comechatiba, is the little River Cahy, which cannot be passed, however, except at ebb-tide: at high water, it is rapid and rough. It flows, like all these rivers, from a dark woody valley. Between three and four leagues further northward, is the mouth of the Corumbao, somewhat larger than the Cahy. At the *barra* are several sandy islands, the haunt of herons and other water-fowl. A league and a half further, the River Cramemoan falls into the sea, on the south bank of which is the little Indian village of the same name, now a military post, called the Quartel da Cunha. In the foreground of the mountains which skirt the open country on the left, is seen the circular white head of the Morro de Pascoal, which serves as a landmark to mariners: it is a part of the Serra dos Aymores. The route again leaves the beach soon after passing the Cramemoan, and ascends, by a steep path, to a dry, elevated campo, called Juassema, the site of a town which was founded by one of the Dukes d'Aveiro, and destroyed by the Aymores.

The next river is the Rio do Frade, a small stream. Cazal makes its barra eight miles north of the Cramemoan. Canoes can proceed two days' journey up the stream, the banks of which are fertile. Monte de Pascoal is seen at a distance of twelve leagues to the west. Three leagues further is the mouth of a rivulet, formerly called Itapitinga. Here, what was formerly a convent of Jesuits, is now a church. The town contained, in 1813, about fifty houses and 500 inhabitants, almost all Indians of a dark-brown complexion. They cultivate mandioca and cotton, and some are fishermen. The Bay of Trancozo is described by Mr. Lindley as small and shallow, and the country, he says, is delightful. The distant forests are inhabited by Patachoes.† From this place it is about fifteen miles to Porto Seguro, the capital of the district. Between Trancozo and Porto Seguro (about three miles south of the latter), is a steep morro crowned with the chapel of Nossa Senhora d'Ajuda, near which formerly stood the town of San Amaro.

up at the distance of forty paces, and they were desired to shoot at this mark, which they never missed.

"Their weapons are, in the main, the same as those of the other savages; their bows are, however, larger than those of any of the other tribes. I measured one of them, and found it to be eight feet nine inches and a half, English measure; they are made of *airi* wood (*bignonia*)."

* A reef in the sea forms at this place a good harbour.

† "From the Rio do Frade to Villa Prado," says this traveller, "is a long range of neglected coast, intersected by several smaller rivers, and frequented by such numbers of hostile Indians, that travelling on the beach is extremely dangerous." This was in 1802; but, in 1816, the people were on such friendly terms with the Patachoes, that they no longer feared them. "The whole coast," Mr. Lindley adds, "is a continuation of reefs, sunken rocks, and shallows; yet, the neighbouring pilots conduct vessels so skilfully through, that few accidents occur."

The town of *Porto Seguro*, situated at the mouth of the River Buranhem, though it ranks as the first in the district, is less than Caravellas.

The port which has given name both to the town and the district, is formed by a reef, or rather ledge of rocks, that runs out for about a mile, from an extended point of the main, in a direction parallel to the land, presenting a natural mole.

"These rocks are dry at low water, and terminate abruptly, appearing again faintly at half a mile's distance. The space between is the bar or entrance, over which is twenty feet water at high tides, but inside, it shallows to twelve feet. The last is the average water of the port, except at some distance up, where the river empties itself, and the water is somewhat deeper. The bottom is a fine sand, gradually ascending to a broad beach. In entering the port, the view of the country is delightful. Near the water's edge is a range of fishermen's cottages, shaded with the waving cocoa in front, and each having its adjoining orange-ground. On the back of these cots, the native underwood intrudes, and, intersected into numberless paths, forms evergreen groves full of birds of rich plumage, and some of song. To the northward, the land rises up to a steep hill, which is ascended by a winding path, and on its summit stands the (upper) town The principal inhabitants have each their country farm, situated chiefly on the banks of the river, and ranging five leagues from its mouth up to Villa Verde. At these they have plantations of the sugar-cane and mandioca."

There is, however, but little agriculture, and the greater part of the farinha consumed, comes from Santa Cruz. This, with salt-fish, constitutes the chief subsistence of the population. There belong to the port the little two-masted vessels, called *lanchas*, which sail with great swiftness. The main-mast has a broad, square sail; the mizen mast, which is shorter, has a small triangular one; and they can be set in such a manner, that the vessel runs so close to the wind, when others cannot steer their course. Porto Seguro is stated by Mr. Lindley to be in latitude 16 deg. 40 min. south, longitude 40 deg. 12 min. west.

Several small rivers join the Porto Seguro or Buranhem, which is also called the Rio da Casioeira, in consequence of a fall. The soil on its banks is said to be of great fertility.

Above five leagues (nearly eighteen miles) north of Porto Seguro, the Santa Cruz falls into the sea. It is rather narrower than the Buranhem, but, like the latter, has a good harbour, protected by a projecting reef of rocks against the violence of the sea. Its first name was the Joam de Tyba. The town of Santa Cruz lies near the mouth, on the south bank, at the foot of the hill.

From this place, a fine beach, "as level as a threshing-floor," extends to the River Mogiquiçaba (or Misquiçaba), a distance of several leagues. The Mogiquiçaba is less considerable than the Santa Cruz. A plain, five leagues wide, extends northward from the Mogiquiçaba to the Belmonte. About half way is the Barra Velha, where an arm of the river, now dry, once discharged itself into the sea. The Rio Grande de Belmonte (so called to distinguish it from the other rivers of the same name), runs close by the town of Belmonte, and falls into the sea in latitude 15 deg. 40 min. south. At high-water, this large river is rapid, but its entrance is always dangerous, being encumbered

with sand-banks which, even at high-water, render the navigation formidable to the lanchas.

The Villa de Belmonte was originally a town of Christianised Indians, who were settled here not above sixty or seventy years ago. Few, if any, of their descendants are now left.

We can add nothing more to the foregoing sketches of these provinces, of which we can vouch for the authenticity.

CHAPTER XI.

INTERIOR PROVINCES OF MINAS GERAES, MATTO GROSSO, AND GOYAZ.

THE province of Minas Geraes, owes its chief celebrity to its precious metals and diamonds. The country has, besides, many natural advantages for agriculture and for pasturage. Nor can it be asserted that when Pombal projected the foundation of the capital of Brazil in this province, his judgment was altogether wrong: although the magnificent splendour of the Bay of Rio Janeiro, is scarcely paralleled in the scenery of the world. A capital, with mountains guarding it from maritime invasion, and more central with regard to the other provinces of the empire, might certainly have been erected amid the valleys of this province.

Minas Geraes is described as by far the most undulated and mountainous region of Brazil. It is separated from the province of San Paulo and Rio Janeiro by the Serra Mantiqueira. The most elevated part of this chain is called the *Ita Culume*.

On the north it bounds on Bahia and Pernambuco, from which it is separated by the rivers Verde and Carynhenha; on the east, it is bounded by part of Bahia, Porto Seguro, and Espiritu Santo; and, on the west, by Goyaz. Its extreme length from north to south is estimated at about 600 miles, extending from which in latitude 13 deg. to 21 deg. 10 min. south; its breadth is estimated about 350 miles. The climate is described as temperate, compared with others in the torrid zone, owing to the elevation of its table-land. It abounds with rivers and mountain streams, the greater part of which have their sources in the Serra Mantiqueira, and flow into four great drains. The Rio Doce and the Jequitinhonha, which flows into the Atlantic; the San Francisco, which runs for a great distance north; the Rio Grande, or Para, which receives also the Rio das Mortes, flows in a westerly direction.

Minas Geraes is said to have been first explored by an inhabitant of Porto Seguro, in the end of the sixteenth century, who, with a party, ascended the Rio Doce, and discovered some emeralds.

Some Paulistas visited the country, about 1694, and discovered gold. Villa Rica and Mananu were so far inhabited as to be called towns in 1711, Il João del Rey, and Sabara, on the following year, and Villa de Príncipe, three years after.

Don Lourenzo d'Almeyda was appointed the first governor-general of this province in 1720. In 1818, Villa Rica was declared the capital of Minas, Villa Boa that of Goyaz, and Villa Bella of Matto Grosso.

There have been discovered in this province, gold, platina, silver, copper, iron, lead, mercury, antimony, bismuth, fossil-coal, diamonds, emeralds, rubies, topazes, chrysolites, sapphires, agates, aqua-marinas, amethysts, and almost all the precious stones. The agricultural products are, cotton, tobacco, sugar, wheat, maize, mandioc, coffee, indigo. It yields also drugs, such as ipecacuanha, columbo-root, jalap, liquorice, vanilla, various gums, and Jesuit's bark. In 1776 according to the documents quoted by Mr. Southey, the province of Minas Geraes contained 319,769 inhabitants. In 1808, the German traveller, M. Von Eschwege, says, "the population amounted to 433,049; of whom, 106,684 were whites, 129,656 free mulattoes, 47,937 free negroes, and 148,772 negro and mulatto slaves. In 1820, they were computed to be 456,675 free persons, and 165,210 slaves; total, 621,885." "With double the population," says Von Spix, "Minas has three-and-a-half times as many negro slaves, and nine times as many free negroes as San Paulo." The population, as stated in the table which we have taken from Mr. Kidder's work, amounted in 1844, to 760,000 souls, but we are uncertain as to whether this number includes all the slaves; nor does it, we believe, include the aborigines.

We have but little recent information relative to this province which would justify us in adding much to all we have said under the general description of Brazil, excepting what we can glean from Mr. Kidder's sketches. This traveller says, its form is nearly square, and its area about 150,000 square miles; or one-seventh larger than the United Kingdom.

Some parts of Minas resemble Goyaz and Matto Grosso, being still a wilderness, and overrun with Indian tribes. Other districts are among the most improved parts of the empire. One writer has remarked, that if there be one spot in the world which might be made to surpass all others, Minas is that favoured spot. Its climate is mild and healthful; its surface is elevated and undulating; its soil is fertile, and capable of yielding the most valuable productions; its forests abound in choice timber, balsams, drugs, and dye-woods.

Its name signifies the general mines, and gold, silver, copper, and iron, and precious stones are found within its limits. Several of its most valuable gold

mines have been wrought by an English mining company for the last twenty years. This company was organised under Dom Pedro I., in 1825, with an active capital of 200,000*l.* It has rendered great service to the country generally, by introducing the most approved methods of mining, and by giving an impetus to Brazilian industry. The company pay twenty per cent upon its products to the government, and employs a large number of miners from Cornwall; and at Gongo Socco, its principal mine, there is a thriving English village.

The agricultural industry of Minas Geraes consists chiefly of the cultivation of coffee, sugar, tobacco, and cotton. Its soil yields Indian corn in great profusion, and would grow wheat. Upon its *campinas*, or uplands, innumerable herds of cattle, and some flocks of sheep are pastured. Of the milk of the cows is made a species of soft cheese, known as the *queijo de Minas*; the cheeses are about two inches thick, and six or eight in diameter. When fully prepared, cured, they are wrapped in banana leaves and packed in baskets, to be transported to market, like every thing else, on the backs of mules. Immense quantities of this cheese is sent to Rio de Janeiro, and from thence distributed along the coast as an article of food. Some coarse manufactures of cotton are made.

Roads are either wanting, or the few that have been opened are extremely bad. Considerable sums have been wasted in the construction of roads, but no produce can yet be sent to market in a wheeled carriage. The journey from Ouro Preto, the capital, to Rio de Janeiro, a distance of about 200 miles, is only performed on the backs of mules and horses, and in no less time than about fifteen days.

According to official accounts, education in Minas Geraes, is more advanced than in the other provinces. The provincial government has expended large sums for the support of schools.

Provision has been made to maintain 182 public schools. Of these there were recently in operation, ninety-six primary schools for boys, fifteen for girls, and twenty-six Latin schools. About 8000 pupils are registered in these schools. The average attendance was about 6000. There are also a number of private schools: and the majority of the inhabitants are giving their children an education. Several youths have been sent to Europe at the expense of the province, to qualify themselves for normal masters.

Should the projected steam navigation upon the Rio Doce and the Rio de San Francisco ever be carried into execution, the prosperity of Minas Geraes would be greatly promoted.

MATTO GROSSO is a great inland and chiefly wilderness province, bounded by the provinces Para, Goyaz, San Paulo, and the Spanish territories. It is said to contain no less than four climates, and its area is vaguely computed as greater than that of all Germany.

“Nature,” says Casal, “has partitioned it into three grand districts, of which

two are divided into six smaller ones, which will, perhaps, at some future day, form the limits of the same number of ouvidorias, when the increase of its population shall render such a measure desirable. These seven grand divisions are, Camapuana on the south; Matto Grosso proper, Cuyaba, and Bororonia in the centre; and Juruenna, Arinos, and Tappiraquia on the north.

"The larger portion of this province must be considered as *terra incognita*, for the most part in the possession of native tribes. Tappiraquia, so called from the Tappiraque Indians, lying between the rivers Araguaya and Xingu, is nearly unknown. Arinos and Juruenna, named from the rivers which intersect them, are not better known. These rivers unite and form the great Tapajos. Bororonia, which takes the name of the Bororo Indians, is watered by the San Lourenço, and lies between Goyaz and Cuyaba.

"Camapuana, the southern division of the province, takes its name from the River Camapuan; it is described almost universally flat, and a vast portion of the western half is annually submerged by the inundations of the Paraguay, which is stated, to cover, in some parts, more than seventy miles of plain. Its northern limits are a chain of mountains, extending in the thirteenth parallel of latitude, from east to west, from which emanate the Paraguay and its branches flowing to the southward, and the heads of the Tapajos and the Xingu flowing northward. Numerous other rivers have their origin in a cordillera of inconsiderable elevation, running from north to south, and dividing the canton into east and west, denominated the Serra Amambahy. The middle of the northern part of this district is known by the name of Vaccaria, or cattle-plains, 'in consequence of the cattle that were dispersed here, when the Paulistas expelled the inhabitants of the city Xerez, and of five neighbouring small aldeias, which formed a small province, of which the said city was the head.'

Of the numerous savage nations, the most powerful are the Guaycurues.

The route to Matto Grosso was formerly from the sea coast, but there has for some time been communications with it from Para by ascending either the Tocantins, the Xingú, the Tapajos, or the Madera rivers.

The distance in a right line from Para to Villa Bella, one of the principal places of Matto Grosso, is about 1000 miles, but at least 2500 miles have to be traversed in making the passage by water. By the Geographical and Historical Institute of Rio de Janeiro, a detailed account of this route has been published.

For the space of 1500 miles up the Amazon and the Madera, to the falls of San Anthony, a powerful current forms the only obstacle. A great part of the country through which the Madera flows is described as very unhealthy. From the falls of San Anthony a succession of falls and rapids occur for more than 200 miles. Canoes and their cargoes overland are carried over *portages* to avoid the falls and rapids, by the most tedious and difficult labour; and, three or four months are occupied in surmounting this difficult part of the route;

above these falls there are about 700 miles of good navigation on the Mamoré and Guaporé Rivers, the whole voyage occupies about ten months by the traders carrying goods. A host of Indians and negroes are required as oarsmen and carriers. It is usual for several companies to associate together, and the enormous quantity of provisions required, occasions great expense and delay. The downward voyage is performed in much less time. Notwithstanding the toil of this long and dreary voyage to Matto Grosso, it is less dreaded than the overland difficult route by the mountains to and from Rio de Janeiro.

Matto Grosso signifies a dense forest, a not very imperfect description of this vast region. The province is sometimes called Cuiabá, after a river which runs through it. The bishopric which it constitutes is known by that name only.

Mr. Kidder says, Matto Grosso lies nearer the centre of South America. It contains over 500,000 square miles, while its population does not, by the largest estimate exceed 40,000, or one inhabitant for each area of twelve square miles. Sixty-six different tribes of Indians still exist in the province. Most of these tribes are in an entirely savage state. A few of them are on friendly terms with the government and people of the province; others are decidedly hostile, and omit no opportunity of making desolating incursions upon the cultivated districts. Extending through seventeen degrees of latitude, the climate of this province is considerably varied. It is generally considered healthy. Although mountainous throughout, it has no volcanoes, nor any peaks which for height can be compared with those of the Andes.

It abounds in deep caverns and magnificent cataracts. Two of its caverns have been explored and described at some length. One of them has been called the Gruta das Onças, from the great number of wild beasts that inhabited it. The other is called Gruta do Inferno, or the Grotto of Hell.

Its soil, which must be exceedingly varied, is said to be generally fertile. In some parts considerable attention is given to grazing, but generally speaking, the inhabitants make no exertions to produce any thing that is not requisite for their immediate consumption. The province abounds in gold and diamonds, but owing to the lack of skill employed in searching for them, the products of either, in latter years, have been very small. What is gained by the miners and the garimpeiros, as the diamond seekers are called, together with small quantities of ipecacuanha, constitute the whole amount of exports from the province. These articles are generally sent to Rio de Janeiro, where they suffice to purchase the few manufactured goods that are used by the inhabitants of Matto Grosso.

Cuiabá, the capital of the province, is situated on a healthy ground near the River Cuiabá. It is, in fact, little more than a village. Its houses are nearly all built of taipa, with floors of hardened clay or brick. The region immediately surrounding it is said to be so abundant in gold, that some grains of it may be

found wherever the earth is excavated. It is about 100 miles from the diamond district.

The first printing-press in Matto Grosso, was brought to it at the expense of the government in 1838. The number of primary schools provided for by the government is eighteen. Eight of these were, in 1843, supplied with teachers, having 434 boys on their lists. The number of scholars in private and Latin schools, at the same time, was about 200. Great inconveniences were suffered from the lack of books, paper, and nearly every other material essential to elementary education. In addition to this low state of education, that of religion appears, from the reports of successive presidents of the province, to be still worse. There are but few churches, and not more than half of these have priests.

GOYAZ, so called from the aboriginal nation Goya; occupies the central parts of Brazil, east of Matto Grosso, and is very similar in its natural and present condition, soil, productions, and climate, to the latter. It extends from Para, on the north, to San Paulo, on the south. Its eastern boundaries are Maranhão, Piauí, Pernambuco, and Minas Geraes. Goyaz was early discovered by the Paulistas, in their search for mines and capturing of slaves. It is described as abounding in gold, diamonds, and precious stones, but its remoteness from the sea, and its want of roads and navigable rivers, are obstacles to those prospects to which its resources are otherwise adapted.

Goyaz is not generally mountainous, but its surface is elevated and undulated. Magnificent forests grow on the banks of its rivers, but the greater portion of the province is covered with low and stunted shrubbery of the same kind as prevails in the province of Minas, and known by the name of *catingas* and *caracuenos*. Its soil yields the usual productions of Brazil, together with many of the fruits of southern Europe. Cultivation has been greater in Goyaz than in Matto Grosso, but it is still in a very rude and limited state.

The Goyas are now nearly extinct, but other tribes still live within it, and some of them cherish a deadly hatred to the people who have invaded and disturbed them. Settlements are said to be often laid waste by their hostile incursions, and regular troops are constantly under arms to resist them.

Lately mineral waters have been discovered in Goyaz. Several warm springs are said to exist in the south-western part of the province.

M. Auguste St. Hilaire and General Raymundo José da Cunha Mattos give us some statements relative to this province. Both of them travelled extensively within its boundaries, and both agree in representing the state of society as backward in the extreme. The *vaqueiros*, or cattle proprietors, possess vast herds of horned cattle, and their principal business is to mark, tend, and fold them. They understand the use of the lasso, and also of the long knife, but their moral and intellectual condition is deplorable. St. Hilaire remarks, that "the people who

become domesticated in these vast wilds, seem to lose the very elements of civilisation. By degrees their ideas of religion, and their respect for the institution of marriage, disappear. They learn to dispense with the use of money as a circulating medium, and to forego the use of salt upon their food." But this is not all—"a species of brutish infidelity is already disseminated throughout these sertoes, which, it is to be feared, will end not only in degrading the people below the ordinary rank of moral and civilised society, but even below the condition of the aboriginal Indians."

Goyaz and Matto Grosso were originally settled by gold hunters. The lure of treasure led adventurers to bury themselves in the deep recesses of these interminable forests. Their search was successful. "Gold was so plentiful, that for the first year every slave commonly returned three and often four ounces a day. It lay upon the very surface of the ground. But the thoughtless adventurers had made no provision for supporting themselves in the wilderness, and they discovered, when too late, that food was more precious than gold. A few white deer were the only game they could find, and mangabas the only fruit. Higher prices for provisions have seldom been demanded in a besieged town, or during extreme famine, than these poor miners were glad to pay. A pound of gold could scarcely buy a bushel of corn, and in one instance a pound of gold was bartered for a pound of salt. A drove of cattle arrived, and flesh and bone together were sold for an ounce and a half of gold per pound. The gold which they gathered was expended for food, but all was not enough, and many of them died of starvation.

"The time when gold was most abundant, was described by one of the survivors as a season of pestilence and famine; and the discoverer himself, who counted his gold by *arrobas*,* died of leprosy. In later times gold has become scarcer, but the march of improvement has been slow, and notwithstanding the ardent anticipations of Mr. Southey and some others, the day is likely to be distant when these regions will either be populous or highly enlightened."

Mr. Kidder says, the presidential reports of Goyaz state the number of primary schools in that province to be sixteen for boys and two for girls. There existed at the same time five or six schools of a higher order, and the number of pupils attending them is about one thousand. The provincial government has, within a few years, imported a printing-press, which is chiefly employed in printing official documents. The condition of the mechanical arts in these two provinces may be inferred from statements made in the report of the minister of the empire in 1844.

"It is scarcely possible to find persons who have any skill in the common mechanical trades; none whatever in comparison with the wants of the country. Eight French mechanics were recently on their way to Matto Grosso. As they

* A weight of thirty-two pounds.

passed through Goyaz, the provincial government induced three of them, a carpenter, a cabinet-maker, and a blacksmith, to establish themselves within its bounds; and this event was deemed so important, as to be officially stated in the president's message to the next provincial assembly." The minister of the empire significantly remarks, that from such particulars, some idea may be formed of the actual state of things in general.

SANTO PAULO.—This province is divided from the province of Rio on the north-east, by a line which, traversing the heights of the vast Serro from the point of Joatinga to the head of the Jacuy, descends that river till it joins the Parahiba. The serra of Mantiqueira separates it from Minas Geraes on the north, the Rio Grande and the Paranna from Goyaz and Matto Grosso on the west and north-west; the Sahy from San Catherina on the south; and on the east it has for its boundary the Atlantic. Its territory is almost all within the temperate zone, between 20 deg. 30 min. and 28 deg. south latitude, comprising 450 miles, from north to south, and 340 miles of medium width. Except in the eastern part, where a *cordillera*, or elevated ridge of mountains, runs parallel with the coast, this province is not mountainous. None of the maritime provinces, with the exception of Para, contain so many navigable rivers; but all these, excluding only the few streams or mountain torrents which descend the eastern declivity of the cordillera, flow west into the interior, and fall into the Paranna, so that they afford little facility as outlets to commerce.*

"The accounts of earlier historians," says Dr. Von Spix, "describe the Paulistas as a lawless tribe, resisting every legitimate constraint of custom and moral feeling, who, for that very reason, had renounced the dominion of Portugal, and formed a separate republic. This opinion was caused also by the reports of the Jesuits, who certainly had good grounds at that time to be discontented with the conduct of the Paulistas. Subsequently to the year 1629, the latter frequently made incursions into the Indian colonies of the Jesuits in Paraguay, and with incredible cruelty carried off all the natives as slaves. These plundering excursions, as well as their enterprises in search of gold to Minas, Goyaz, and Cuiabá, gave to the character of the Paulistas of that time a selfishness, rudeness, and insensibility, and inspired them with a disregard for all relations consecrated by law and hu-

* The city of San Paulo, which gives its name to the province, is the oldest in Brazil, and above every other interesting in an historical point of view. "Here, more than in any other place," says Dr. Von Spix, "we find the present connected with the past. The Paulista is sensible of this, and says, not without pride, that his native city has a history of its own." The celebrated Anchieta and his brother Jesuits commenced this city in the year 1552, with the foundation of a college, in which they celebrated the first mass on St. Paul's Day. When, six years after, it acquired the denomination of a town, its name was determined by this circumstance. Its first inhabitants were a horde of Guayana Indians under their cacique, Tebireca, who had resided in the *aldeia* of Piratininga, near the small river of that name, not far from the new colony, which, in consequence, took the name of San Paulo de Piratininga. The Indians were soon joined by a great number of Europeans, and a mixed race rapidly augmented the population; so that, before a century had elapsed, the Paulistas had become formidable by their numbers, as they were distinguished by their spirit of enterprise.

manity, which naturally drew upon them the severest reprobation of the fathers, who were animated with enthusiastic zeal for the welfare of mankind.*

This republican character is, however, now softened, and the Paulista enjoys, throughout Brazil, the reputation of great frankness, undaunted courage, and a romantic love of adventures and dangers.†

Mr. Kidder recently visited this province. He proceeded by a steam-packet to Santos. On entering the river of the latter, the packet was met by boatmen.

"Their principal employment," he says, "is to go on board the vessels as they pass up and down, to serve as a guard against smuggling. The course of the river is winding, and its bottom muddy. Its banks are low, and covered with mangroves."

Passing up the river, he first came in sight of a few houses on the left, called Villa Nova. Soon after, on the opposite side, appeared Fort Itipema, an old fortification much dilapidated, and whose only garrison was a single family. Next became visible the masts of twenty or thirty vessels lying at anchor before the town, which is upon the southern or left bank as we ascend. On arriving, he was boarded by a port officer in regimentals. His visit was one of mere ceremony, as he did not demand the passports, but his letters. The passage from Rio de Janeiro occupied about forty-eight hours, rather more than the usual time.

Santos, the harbour of San Paulo, is built on the southern shores of the Island of San Vincente, and has a safe harbour of easy access, about 8000 inhabitants, and trades with Rio de Janeiro, Pernambuco, Ceara, and Maranhão. Several European vessels enter it annually. San Sebastiao, on the island of the same name, has 5000 inhabitants, and exports timber and grain. Iguape, further west, has a good harbour, with about 6500 inhabitants, and exports rice and timber.

* The Paulistas, although they did not designate the domestic Indians by the appellation of captives, or slaves, but by that of *administrados*, disposed of them as such, giving them to their creditors in payment of debts, and by way of dowry on occasions of marriage. The Jesuits, who possessed or had the control over a great number of Indians, and under whose power they received the denomination of *administrados*, without any consequences of slavery being attached to the term, declaimed against the abuses practised by the Paulistas, and demonstrated to them the impropriety of usurping a right to dispose of the liberty of the Indian. The Paulistas, who were opulent, and owed all their wealth to the arms of their numerous *administrados*, determined to repel the Jesuits, in order that the truths which they promulgated should not militate against their interests.—*Henderson's History of Brazil.*

† "It is true," says Dr. Von Spix, "that in conjunction with these commendable qualities, a propensity to anger and revenge, pride and stubbornness have, remained in his character, and he is therefore feared by his neighbours; the stranger, however, sees in his haughty manner, only earnestness and an independent spirit; in his good-natured frankness and hospitality, an amiable feature; in his industry, the activity that marks the inhabitants of a temperate zone; and has less occasion than his neighbours to become acquainted with his faults. The only excuse for his pride is, that he can boast of having a claim, through the actions of his forefathers, to this new continent, which the settlers from Europe cannot adduce. There is no manner of doubt that the first comers contracted frequent marriages with the neighbouring Indians, and the complexion and physiognomy of the people indicate the mixture here, more than in the other cities of Brazil, for instance, in Maranhão and Bahia. Many whites have, however, at all times settled here; and many families of Paulistas have preserved themselves without mixture with the Indians; these are as white, nay, even whiter, than the purer descendants of the Europeans in the northern provinces of Brazil.

On proceeding to the interior he observes, it is necessary to premise, that not only rail cars, but also stage coaches, and all other vehicles of public conveyance, are entirely unknown in the country, owing, in a great degree, at least, to the unsuitable character of the roads. All who do not walk must expect to be conveyed on the backs of mules or horses, and to have their baggage transported in the same way. For long journeys, the former are generally preferred. But it frequently happens at Santos that neither can be hired in sufficient number without sending to a considerable distance. Although scarcely a day occurs in the year in which more or less troops of mules do not leave that place for the upper country, yet the greater part of those animals are totally unfit for riding, being only accustomed to the pack-saddle, and having never worn the bit. It may be here remarked, that ordinary transportation, to and from the coast, is accomplished with no inconsiderable regularity and system, notwithstanding the manner. Many planters keep a sufficient number of beasts to convey their entire produce to market; others do not, but depend more or less upon professional carriers. Among these each troop is under charge of a conductor, who superintends its movements and transacts its business. They generally load down with sugar and other agricultural products, conveying, in return, salt, flour, and every variety of imported merchandise. A gentleman who had for many years employed these conductors in the transmission of goods, told him he had seldom or never known an article fail of reaching its destination.

On leaving Santos, he says, "The first characters that engaged my attention were the two tropeiros, or conductors of the troop. They were not mounted, but preferred going on foot, in order to give proper attention to their animals and baggage:

"The road was level as far as Cubatão, leading along the river, and twice crossing that stream by bridges. The principal house of the village mentioned was the Registro: where, in addition to paying a slight toll, each passer-by had his name and nation registered. A short distance beyond Cubatão we commenced ascending the Serra do Mar, or Ocean Cordillera. This range of mountains stretches along more than 1000 miles of coast, sometimes laved at its very feet by the ocean; at others branching off inland, leaving a considerably wide range of low and level interval, called by the Portuguese, Beira Mar.

"The road leading up the Serra do Cubatão, is one of the most expensive and best wrought in Brazil. Yet owing to the steepness of the ascent, it is utterly impassable to carriages. It embraces about four miles of solid pavement, and upwards of 180 angles in its zig-zag course.

"A solid pavement up this mountain pass was rendered essential from the liability of the road to injury by the continued tread of animals, and also from torrents of water which are frequently precipitated down and across it in heavy rains. Notwithstanding the original excellence of the work, maintained as it had been by frequent repairs, we were obliged to encounter some gulleys and slides of earth

which would have been thought of fearful magnitude had they not been rendered insignificant in comparison with the heights above, and the deep ravines which ever and anon yawned beneath precipitous embankments. At these points, a few false steps of the passing animal would have plunged both him and his rider beyond the hope of rescue. Our ascent was rendered more exciting by meeting successive troops of mules.

"Through openings in the foliage, we had repeated opportunities of viewing the country below, skirted by the ocean. The Jesuit Vasconcellos, who had performed the ascent about 200 years before, thus describes the pass, and the description, it is said, will still hold true with the exception of the last sentence, which makes the elevation too great.

" 'The greater part of the way you have not to travel, but to get on with hands and feet, and by the roots of trees; and this among such crags and precipices, that I confess my flesh trembled when I looked down. The depth of the valley is tremendous, and the number of mountains, one above another, seems to leave no hope of reaching the end. When you fancy you are at the summit of one, you find yourself at the bottom of another of no less magnitude. True it is, that the labour of ascent is recompensed from time to time; for when I seated myself upon one of these rocks, and cast my eyes below, it seemed as though I was looking down from the heaven of the moon, and that the whole globe of earth lay beneath my feet. A sight of rare beauty for the diversity of prospect, of sea and land, plains, forests, and mountain tracks, all various, and beyond measure delightful. This ascent, broken with shelves of level, continues till you reach the plains of the Piratininga, in the second region of the air, where it is so thin, that it seems as if those who newly arrive could never breathe their fill.'

"From the summit of the serra, which is 2250 feet above the sea, the distance to San Paulo is about thirty miles, over a country diversified with undulations, of which the prevailing declination by the course of streams is inland. Nevertheless, so slight is the variation from a general level, that the highest point within the city of San Paulo, is estimated to be in precisely the same altitude with the summit mentioned. No inconvenience could therefore be experienced from rarification of the atmosphere at such an elevation.

"The soil here is occasionally sandy, and frequently mingled with ferruginous sandstone, partially decomposed. At other points a reddish marl predominates. The general appearance of the country resembles the oak openings of the western states of North America, being interspersed with prairies; although the character of the vegetation is entirely different, and is also much varied from the region below. One decided peculiarity of the uplands of San Paulo, consists in their prairies being dotted with ant-hills. The earth composing the outer crust of these insect habitations, becomes so perfectly indurated between rain and sun, as to retain the erect and oval form originally given it, for scores of years.

"The rain ceasing, we proceeded as far as Rio Pequeno (Little River), and made a halt at a rancho upon its banks. The ordinary rancho is a simple shed, or rather a thatched roof set upon posts, entirely open below. It is built expressly for the accommodation of travellers, and its size corresponds to the public spirit of the neighbourhood. Sometimes a rancho is from sixty to 100 feet long, and proportionally wide. Occasionally one may be found enclosed. Those who first come are entitled to their choice of position. They unlade their mules, and pile up their saddles and cargo, frequently constructing a hollow square, within which they sleep, either upon skins extended on the ground or in hammocks. Their beasts are turned out to graze for the night; and as each troop ordinarily carries such culinary apparatus as its company requires, they have abundant leisure for preparing food while their animals are resting.

"Frequently, for the sake of securing better pasture, the tropeiros encamp in the open air. They then pile up their panniers of sugar, coffee, or other cargo, in a right line, cover them with hides, and dig a trench around them in order to prevent injury from any sudden shower."

The fact, that the great majority of all who travel in the interior of Brazil prefer arrangements of this kind, may account for the scarcity of better accommodation.

The latter part of his route led over a pleasant rolling country, but thinly inhabited. The road, although simply a beaten track, not designed for carriages of any description, has been found to need frequent repairs, from the throng of laden mules that are constantly passing over it. A party of Germans, just arrived, were thus employed. The rest were chiefly mulattoes and Indians.

"It would be expected in the absence of carriages, that unless females were absolute 'keepers at home,' they would become expert in riding. We accordingly had repeated opportunities of witnessing their dexterity in managing the rein and stirrup. We could hardly persuade ourselves to admire their style of riding, notwithstanding their skill, and the fleetness of their horses; yet in the destitution of side-saddles, it would be difficult to suggest a better. Men's hats seemed to be in fashion with them, both in riding and walking."

The troops, or caravans, so often met on this route, are composed of from 100 to 300 mules each, attended by a sufficient number of persons. The mules have each a pack-saddle, bearing upon each side well-balanced panniers, containing bags of sugar, or other goods. One is trained to take the lead, and is selected on account of experience on the roads. Its head is often adorned with sea-shells and plumes of peacocks' feathers. It has a bell suspended, and then takes the lead. The conductor of each troop is well mounted, and with a lasso, is ready to pick up any animal that attempts to stray away.

Passing through the plains of Ypiranga, he soon came in sight of San Paulo, and passed up a narrow street into that ancient city.*

* "Proceeding to the only house where public entertainment could be expected, I was soon

The city of San Paulo is situated between two small streams, upon elevated uneven ground. Its streets are narrow, and not laid out with regularity. They have narrow side-walks, and are paved with ferruginous conglomerate closely resembling old red sandstone.

Some of the buildings are constructed of this stone; but the material more generally used in the construction of houses is the common soil, slightly moistened, built up into a solid wall. These walls are usually very thick, and are generally covered by projecting roofs, which preserve them from the rains. Walls of this kind have been known to stand more than 100 years, without the least protection.

The houses within the city are generally two stories high, and constructed with balconies, sometimes with, and sometimes without lattices. These balconies are the favourite resorts of both sexes in the coolness of the morning and evening, and when processions are passing through the streets.*

In the suburbs and vicinity of San Paulo there are many handsome houses and gardens. This town is a rendezvous for the province. Many of the more wealthy planters who have houses in the city, spend only a small part of their time on their estates. They direct in the city the sale and disposal of their produce, as it passes down the serra to market.

Near the town is the botanical garden, established about thirteen years ago. It is laid out in good taste, with shaded walks, and has a tank of pure water. It is rather neglected, from a want of funds.

There are twelve churches in the city of San Paulo. The cathedral is large, and in it some twenty ecclesiastics chant high mass. A considerable number of persons, chiefly women, were present.

arranged in comfortable lodgings. This house was kept by one Charles, a Frenchman, married to a Portuguese wife, and for many years a resident of the place. I found that almost every preceding traveller, from whatever nation, had been entertained by him. This experience of Monsieur Charles had led him to an unusual degree of caution respecting his guests. His rule was, to admit none without a letter of introduction. A gentleman, acquainted with this regulation, had favoured me with the necessary note."

* "The houses of Brazil, whether constructed of earth or stone, are generally coated outside with plastering, and whitewashed. Their whiteness contrasts admirably with the red tiling of their roof; and one of its principal recommendations is the ease with which it can be re-applied in case of having become dull or soiled. In San Paulo the prevailing colour is varied in a few instances with that of a straw yellow, and a light pink. On the whole, there appeared a great degree of neatness and cheerfulness in the external aspect of the houses in San Paulo.

"There is a considerable variety in their general plan; but almost all are so constructed as to surround an area, or open space within, which is especially useful in furnishing air to the sleeping apartments, and is rendered the more indispensable by the custom of barring and bolting, with heavy inside shutters, all the windows that connect with the street. In cities, the lower stories are seldom occupied by the family, but sometimes with a shop, and sometimes with the carriage-house or stable. The more common apartments above, are the parlour and dining-room, between which, almost invariably, are alcoves designed for bed-rooms. The furniture of the parlour varies in costliness according to the degree of style maintained; but what you may always expect to find, is a cane-bottomed sofa at one extremity, and three or four chairs arranged in precise parallel rows, extending from each end of it towards the middle of the room. In company, the ladies are expected to occupy the sofa, and the gentlemen the chairs."

Among the prevailing fruit-trees here, is the Jaboticabeira in great abundance. This tree belongs to the order of Myrtaceae, and exhibits the great singularity of bearing its flower and fruit directly upon the trunk and large limbs, to which they are closely attached, while the extremities are covered with dense green foliage. The fruit is highly delicious, resembling in appearance the large purple grape.

The *campos* may be denominated prairies or openings, and in which rare plants abound. Among the variety, the *tibou* is extremely fatal to cattle, and they die without remedy soon after eating it.

Education in San Paulo.—The Academy of Laws, or, as it is frequently denominated, the University of San Paulo, ranks first among all the literary institutions of the empire. The secretary and acting president, Doctor Brotero, has published a standard work on the "Principles of Natural Law," and a treatise upon "Maritime Prizes."

The edifice of the Curso Juridico, was originally constructed as a convent by the Franciscan monks, whom the government compelled to abandon it, for its present more profitable use. Being larger and well built, a few alterations rendered it suitable to the purposes for which it was required. The lecture-rooms are on the first-floor, the professors' rooms and library on the second; these, together with an ample court-yard and two immense chapels, compose the buildings. In one chapel are several paintings. Both abounded in images and painted representations of the patron saint. The library of the institution, containing 7000 volumes, is composed of the collection formerly belonging to the Franciscans, a part of which was bequeathed to the convent by the Bishop of Madeira; the library of a deceased Bishop of San Paulo, a donation of 700 volumes from the first director, and some additions ordered by the government. It was not overstocked with books upon law or *belles lettres*, and was quite deficient in the department of science. There was a superabundance of unread and unreadable volumes on theology.*

In its arrangement, the University of Coimbra was followed as a model for this. The education imparted by it may be formal and exact in its way, but

* The Academy of the Legal and Social Sciences of the city of San Paulo, was created by a law, dated August 11, 1827. It was formally opened by the first professor, Doctor Jozé Maria de Avellar Brotero, on the first day of March, 1828—Lieutenant-General Jozé Arouche de Toledo Rendon being first director.

The statutes by which it is governed were approved by law, November 7, 1831.

The studies of the preparatory course are Latin, French, English, rhetoric, rational and moral philosophy, geometry, history, and geography.

The regular course extends through five years. The several professorships are thus designated:

First Year.—1st. Professorship Natural and Public Law, Analysis of the Constitution of the Empire, Laws of Nations and of Diplomacy. Second Year.—1st. Continuation of the above subjects; 2nd. Public Ecclesiastical Law. Third Year.—1st. Civil Laws of the Empire; 2nd. Criminal Laws—Theory of the Criminal Process. Fourth Year.—1st. Continuation of Civil Law; 2nd. Mercantile and Maritime Law. Fifth Year.—1st. Political Economy; 2nd. Theory and Practice of General Law, adapted to the code of the Empire.

can never be popular. The Brazilian people regard utility more than the antiquated forms of a Portuguese University.

The number of students, from year to year, has been, 1828, 33; 1829, 114; 1830, 213; 1831, 270; 1832, 274; 1833, 267; 1834, 221; 1835, 175; 1836, 178; 1837, 94; 1838, 63; 1839, 60; 1840, 53; 1841, 59; 1842, 61; 1843, 65.

Excursion to the Interior.—Mr. Kidder travelled inland. He says, "The route was greatly diversified, between hill and dale, but did not often give an extended prospect. Indeed, each successive turn of our winding way seemed to take us deeper into a vast labyrinth of vegetable beauty, only here and there touched by the hand of cultivation. The palm-tree, in any of its numerous varieties, is a peculiar ornament to a landscape. Two single species prevailed throughout this section. One shot directly upward, a tall, slender, and solitary trunk, without leaf or flower. The other, growing to the length of from sixty to ninety feet, gradually tapered from the base to the extremity, until it reached the minuteness of a thread, throwing out at each joint a circle of leafy tendrils, which sometimes caught the branches of other trees for support, and sometimes waved pendulous and gracefully, forming every imaginable curve in the air. There were also the golden *vochysia*, *bignonias* of various hues, and now and then an immense tree, a veteran of the forest, decked with blossoms as bright and gay as the first dress of the primrose in spring.

JARAQUA.—"Although containing two or three thousand people, and receiving its principal importance from being a central point for business, the place contained but one inn or *estalagem*, and that was a small house some distance from the street, with much more of a private than public appearance. The master of the house was absent, and I saw none of its inmates save negroes and children. The key of my apartments was sent out, by means of which I was soon introduced to a place having neither floor nor window, and which, but for the door that opened before me, would have been unvisited by either air or light. However, there was room to turn round, and to stow away our saddles and portman-teaux, and in a recess hard by I discovered a bed. Supper was sent in anon, consisting of chicken broth and boiled rice.

"The next morning was delightful, the sky bright, and the air fresh, although the sun on appearing rapidly gained strength. Our route led through a nearly level forest of four leagues in extent, beyond which there appeared clearings and cultivated grounds. During the day I passed the only saw-mill I observed anywhere in Brazil; all forms of timber being ordinarily cut by the slow and toilsome process of the hand or cross-cut saw. Several features in the general aspect of the country, more than usually resembled the appearance of things in the United States.

"The variety of birds that enlivened our route was greater than common. The

pomba and pombinha de rola species of mourning doves, were most frequently seen; while the uraponga, thus named in imitation of its note, was constantly heard. I will here remark, notwithstanding the extravagant accounts which some writers have given respecting the inhabitants of a South American forest, that while travelling very extensively in that country, in different latitudes, I found both birds and animals much more rare than they are throughout the United States. Squirrels of no species appear, and the most that a traveller will have seen, in ordinary circumstances, throughout a day's ride, will have been a monkey or a flock of paroquets. The apparent absence of game, however, may be in part owing to its extreme wildness, for monkeys are often heard howling at a distance.

"The soil over which we passed was but little diversified, constantly resembling the red marly alluvial of San Paulo. We reached the villa of San Carlos, at which I was most hospitably entertained by a gentleman to whom I bore letters of introduction. This town is on the border of a vast series of level plains, sweeping inland. The road over which I had passed from the coast was only suitable for beasts, but from this place transportation could be effected by carts or waggons for a distance of near 300 miles.

"As a matter of course, this place had become a great rendezvous for muleteers, who conveyed the sugars of the interior hence to the sea-coast, and brought back salt and other commodities in exchange. Troops might be seen loading and unloading every day."

CHAPTER XII.

PROVINCES OF SANTA CATHARINA AND OF RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

SANTA CATHARINA.—In 1796, this province was computed to contain 1246 *fogos* (fires or hearths, that is, houses), and 23,865 adult inhabitants, exclusive of troops. In 1812, the population, according to Cazal, amounted to 31,530. In 1844, there were, by official returns, 53,707 free inhabitants, and 12,511 slaves. The province has three towns—Nossa Senhora do Desterro on the Island of Santa Catharina, San Francisco on the island of the same name, and Laguna on the continent; and seven *freguezias* or parishes—three on the island, and four on the continent.

The inhabitants of these provinces devote their time more to the breeding of cattle than to the cultivation of the soil. They are also engaged in the fisheries along the coast and in the lagoons.

The island of Santa Catharina is mountainous. The province of Santa Catharina is the smallest in Brazil. It comprehends the island from which it takes its name, and an extent of about 200 miles of sea-coast. The capital, which is called Nossa Senhora do Desterro, is situated upon the north-western extremity

of the island, and is but a small town, although its harbour is compared with that of Rio de Janeiro for excellence and beauty.*

It is well supplied with good water. The verdure, the orange trees, and houses generally well built, render the place refreshing and picturesque.

Its natural advantages are great, but its trade is inconsiderable; and is covered with forests and fields of pasturage. The climate is temperate, and most of the trees and fruits of Europe will grow in perfection. It is often visited by invalids. Flax is grown in the neighbouring country, of which coarse linen is made, and cotton and thread are often woven together. Jars, water-pots, and other vessels are made of the red clay of the interior.

Among the shells abounding on the coast, there is a species of *Murex*, from which a beautiful crimson colour is extracted. The butterflies are splendid. Langsdorff says, "They are not like the tame and puny lepidoptera of Europe, which can be caught by means of a small piece of silk. On the contrary, they rise high in the air, with a brisk and rapid flight. Sometimes they light and repose on flowers and the tops of trees, and rarely risk within reach of the hand. They appear to be constantly on their guard, and if caught at all, it must be when on the wing, by means of a net at the extremity of a long rod of cane. Some species are observed to live in society, hundreds and thousands of them being sometimes found together. These generally prefer the lower districts and the banks of streams. When one of them is caught and fastened by a pin on the surface of the sand, swarms of the same species will gather round him, and may be caught at pleasure.

Mines of coal are said to exist within this province, but no satisfactory discoveries have yet been made. Doctor Parigot, who was employed to make surveys in the province in 1841, "reported the existence of a carboniferous stratum, from twenty to thirty miles in width, and about 300 in length, running from north to south through the province. The best vein of coal he opened he pronounced half bituminous, and situated between thick strata of the hydrous oxide of iron and bituminous schist."

Oranges, pine apples, and various fruits are described as delicious. Mandioc, flax, cotton, rice, maize, some wheat, &c., are cultivated. The whale and other fisheries are carried on near the shores, and in the bays and lagoons, and this small and fertile province requires only industry and a larger population to render it an earthly paradise.

THE PROVINCE OF GRANDE DO SUL is described as healthy, and abounds in

* Commodore Anson touched here in 1740, the place having become of more consequence, and the authority of the government being increased in proportion, the inhospitable system established in other parts of Brazil, had been introduced there also. A great contraband trade was then carried on from this island with the Plata, the Portuguese exchanging gold for silver, by which traffic both sovereigns were defrauded of their fifths. Fortifications were then being erected. In 1749, the population of Santa Catharina had increased to 4197; but about the end of the century, several thousands were carried off by a contagious disease, which appears to have been dysentery with putrid fever.

natural advantages. It has for a long time past been involved in a rebellion which has nearly destroyed its prosperity. One result of this continued revolution has been the almost entire extinction of slavery within the contested territory. In order to increase their ranks, the revolting party promised, from time to time, liberty and arms to every slave of a legitimist who would desert his master, and the government likewise promised the same to those slaves who would desert the revolters; and, by a summary act, deprived all the rebels of the legal right to hold slaves. Thus, between the two parties, the slaves are declared free, although it is possible that many on both sides will, by some means, be kept in ignorance of the privilege.

The proximity of Rio Grande to the Spanish Republics on the south and west, brings the inhabitants into intercourse with those of the latter; which no doubt engenders a republican spirit. The population of Rio Grande has intermixed with that of the neighbouring states.

The appearance and character of the inhabitants of Rio Grande partake of the circumstances there pursued. They are described as generally tall, of an active and energetic appearance, with handsome features, and of a lighter skin than prevails among the inhabitants of the northern provinces of Brazil. Both sexes are accustomed from childhood to ride on horseback, in which they acquire great skill; they take their amusements, as well as perform their journeys, and pursue the wild cattle of their plains on horseback. The use of the lasso is learned from boyhood, and is managed with almost inconceivable dexterity. Little children, armed with their *lasso* or *bolas*, make war upon chickens, ducks, and geese of the poultry farm-yard, as preparatory to bolder attempts.

For the pursuit of wild cattle, horses are admirably trained, so that when the lasso is thrown they know precisely what to do.

A province so extensive, and so conveniently situated, as that of Rio Grande do Sul, possesses the greatest advantages, and many harbours. Pasturage is the most general means of the inhabitants. There are several towns.

Up to the year 1763, the provincial capital was San Pedro do Sul, or Rio Grande, its harbour, which forms the entrance to the Lagoa dos Paros is improperly termed a river.

PORTO ALLEGRO, or PORT ALEGRE, is situated near the mouth of the River Jacuhy, and is said to be well built, and to contain about 10,000 inhabitants. Vessels are built, and some trade carried on with the sea and with the interior. Sao Leopoldo, north of it, is described as a thriving place, with about 5000 inhabitants. Francisco de Paula, inland to the north, has been chiefly a place for preparing jerked beef.

If this province were only restored to tranquillity, its pastures, soil, and other resources would with an industrious and intelligent population, render it susceptible of great prosperity.

CHAPTER XIII.

PROVINCE AND CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

THIS province, Rio de Janeiro, derives its name from its port, falsely called Rio de Janeiro : for it is not a river but a magnificent inlet of the sea, and with only a few insignificant streams flowing into it, bounded on the north by Espiritu Santo, and by Minas Geraes. On the west it borders on San Paulo ; and on the south and the east it has the Atlantic Ocean. It comprises about half of the original capitania of San Vincente, together with a portion of territory formerly belonging to Espiritu Santo. It is estimated to be sixty leagues in length from east to west, near its northern extremity, and fifty near its southern, and to be about twenty-three leagues of average breadth.

We have various accounts of this province, but little that we can rely upon of recent date, except the sketches of Mr. Kidder, and the official returns of trade which will be found hereafter.

The Serra dos Orgoas, organ mountains, so called on account of the resemblance which the pyramidal heads bear, in various parts, to the face of an organ, divide the province into two parts ; northern, or *Serra-accina* (mountains above), and southern, or *Beira-mar* (sea-coast). These, again, are subdivided into districts, or comarcas. The greater part of the province of Rio de Janeiro is mountainous. The chief river is the Parahiba, which rises in a small lake in the southern part of the Serra da Bocania ; it flows into the captaincy of San Paulo ; and after a long and tortuous course, re-enters the province of Rio de Janeiro, and runs into the Atlantic. For navigable purposes, the rivers of this province are considered nearly useless.

There are several lakes, the most remarkable are, the Jacaré-pagua, and the Roderigo de Freytas. The *Angra dos Reis* (King's Bay) is very large, and scarcely less splendid than that of Rio de Janeiro ; and, like the latter, is adorned with many islands. The principal of these, Ilha Grande, has good harbours, the best of which has obtained the name of O Seio de Habraham (Abraham's bosom).

At ANGRA DOS REIS there was at an early period a town founded but its subsequent growth did not correspond to the expectation of its founders. Mr. Kidder, in 1842, judged it to contain about 250 houses, which are arranged in a semicircular form upon the praya or low ground, bordered by surrounding mountains.

ILHA GRANDE is about fifteen miles from east and west in length, and at its

greatest breadth about seven miles from north and south. A considerable portion of it is under the cultivation of sugar-cane, coffee, &c. It is frequently resorted to by whale-ships, in order to recruit their stock of wood, water, and fresh provisions.

PARATY is the next port at which the steamboat touches, and the last to the south belonging to the province of Rio de Janeiro. The town is small, but regularly built, and beautifully situated at the extremity of a long arm of the sea, which is adorned with picturesque palm-wooded islands. It contains three churches, dedicated to Nossa Senhora, the first of the conception, second of grief, third of the cliff. The territory connected with this port embraces the fertile plains of Bananal, Paraty-Mirim, and Mambucaba; distinguished for their luxuriant production of many of the fruits of southern Europe, as well as coffee, rice, mandioca, legumes, and the choicest of sugar-cane.

Great labour and outlay has been incurred in completing a macadamised road, from Porta da Estrella, near the head of the Bay of Janeiro, over the serra towards the province of Minas Geraes. Iguassu is a busy place, situated about ten miles from the mouth of a river of the same name, on which it stands. This river rises in the Serra dos Orgaos, and although winding in its course, is navigable for large *lanchas* up to the town. This place, twenty years ago, did not contain more than thirty houses. The planters bring their coffee, beans, farinha de mandioca, toucinho and cotton, to Iguassú, from which it is sent by *lanchas* to Rio de Janeiro.

CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

RIO DE JANEIRO, or San Sebastiao de Rio de Janeiro,* the capital of the empire, stands on the western shores of the Bahia de Rio de Janeiro, one of the most splendidly magnificent inlets of the ocean. This bay, called by the Aborigines *Netherohy*, or hidden waters, is about twenty-four miles in length, nearly north and south, and fifteen miles in its greatest width. The entrance, between two granite mountains, is hardly a mile wide, and formed by two projecting, rocky, and elevated headlands, which are fortified, as well as a small island near the entrance. The Bay of Rio de Janeiro affords one, or rather several of the best harbours on the globe. It is so free from dangers and shoals that no pilot is required. The city, which is at once the sovereign and commercial metropolis of the empire, stands about four miles from the entrance, and extends about three miles over undulating ground.

The aspect of Rio de Janeiro is brightly vivid in its white buildings and verdant back-grounds. It presents no brick walls, dingy roofs, or tall chimneys

* The most recent accounts of Rio de Janeiro and its waters which we have, are those by Captain Wilkes of the United States Exploring Expedition, in the latter end of the year 1838, and that—most valuable of all—by Mr. Kidder.

Captain Wilkes has committed an extraordinary blunder where he says "San Salvador, better known as Rio de Janeiro." San Salvador is the old name of Bahia.

resembling the features of European cities. The houses, churches, and public edifices rise amidst hills which branch off from the adjacent mountains. At the foot, and along the brows of these hills, the white walled and red-tiled roofs, are decked by the luxuriant vegetation of trees and shrubs that impart picturesque beauty to the splendid, and romantic, scenery of a landscape unsurpassed in its variety and in its grandeur.

The Morro do Castello, with its tall signal staff, crests the most commanding height directly above the entrance from ocean to the bay. The Morro telegraph announces the flag, class, and place of each vessel that appears in the offing. Between the Ponta do Calabouço, and the Ilha das Cobras, the older and denser part of the town appears in view.

The emperor has two palaces—the first in front of the general landing-place, which was the ancient residence of the viceroys of Portugal. It is now only occasionally thrown open for reception by the emperor on court days; that is, not as a residence, but much like St. James's Palace in London. The palace of residence is about five miles distant, in the suburb of St. Christopher. There is also the palace of the National Assembly, the palace of the Senate, the palace of the Campo da Honra, the palace of the Municipality, and the palace of the bishop.

Other edifices are the naval and military arsenals, barracks, the Custom House and Consulado, offices of the government and of the police, courts of justice, prisons, and the ancient College of the Jesuits, now the Academy of Medicine, the Academy of the Fine Arts, the National Library, and a National Museum.

The religious buildings are the cathedral, an imperial chapel, about fifty churches and chapels, two monasteries, two nunneries, two public and three private hospitals, and two cemeteries.

The streets intersect each other at right angles except along the beach, and the declivities of the hills, where there is only space for one winding street. The Passeio Publico, or public promenade, commands beautiful views. It is a general resort for recreation. There are several squares or open spaces in other parts of the town. Fountains are numerous, some of them with façades of granite. These supply all the population abundantly with pure running water, flowing along the aqueducts from the mountains.

The chief anchorage of this splendid haven is within hearing of the deep-sounding reverberations of the surges of the ocean. Here are seen floating high in air, the flags of the war and merchant ships of England, of France, of the States, and occasionally those of other European and American states. The war United and the trading fleets have each their respective anchorage grounds.

On arriving by sea in Rio de Janeiro it is usual to land in a small boat at the Largo do Paço, or Palace-square: and at flood tide the waters dash against the granite parapet.

At other landing-places the passenger is carried over the surf on the shoulders of boatmen. There are no docks and wharves, unless it be platforms erected to land from the steam ferry-boats which ply between the city and the opposite side of the bay. Coasting steamers, merchant vessels, and men-of-war all ride at anchor in the harbour.

At the Palace-square, generally, a throng of all colours, especially Africans, are collected round the fountain to obtain water, which flows perpetually from numerous pipes, "and when caught in tubs or barrels, is borne off upon the heads of both males and females."

The slaves are barefooted, even when gaily dressed. To prevent disturbances when the slaves, usually social, happen to fight, soldiers are generally stationed near the fountains.

The Largo do Paço is the resort of the citizens and foreigners, who walk or sit there to enjoy the sea breeze.

The Palace of the Viceroys, now appropriated to various public offices, is a large stone building, in the old Portuguese style of architecture, and contains the suite of rooms in which the court is held on levee days, and has also numerous apartments. The buildings at the rear of the Palace-square were all erected for ecclesiastical or conventual, but now used for secular purposes. The old chapel remains, but has been superseded by the recently-erected imperial chapel, which stands at its right. Adjoining the imperial chapel is that of Our Lady of Mount Carmel, daily open as a cathedral.

The streets are generally narrow, and paved with large stones. The houses seldom exceed three stories in height. In streets chiefly devoted to trade, the first floors only are appropriated as shops, and families occupy the upper apartments.

The buildings are nearly all built of granite. The outside walls consist of small and irregular stones cemented and coated with plaster. The colour is almost invariably a clear white, on which the sun often reflects a painful brilliancy to the eyesight.

The Rua Direita is the widest and most business-like street: it runs nearly parallel to the shore of the bay.*

* Nothing can be more animated and peculiar than the scenes which are witnessed here during the business hours of the day, namely, from nine A.M. till two P.M. During these hours only vessels are permitted to discharge and receive their cargoes, and at the same time all goods and baggage must be dispatched at the Custom-house, and removed therefrom. Consequent upon such arrangements, the utmost activity is required to remove the goods dispatched at the Custom-house, and to embark those productions of the country that are daily required in the transactions of a vast commercial emporium. When the reader, moreover, is told that all this labour is performed by human hands,—that scarcely a cart or a dray is used in the city for such purposes, unless, indeed, it is drawn by negroes, as for the heavier burdens a few are,—he will be prepared to figure before his mind some scores of negroes moving with loads upon their heads in every direction.

The coffee carriers usually go in troops, numbering ten or twenty individuals, of whom one takes the lead, and is called the captain. These are usually the largest and strongest men that can be found. While at work they seldom wear any other garment than a pair of short pantaloons;

The Praca do Commercio, or Exchange, in the Rua Direita, was formerly a part of the Custom-house, but given by government for a Bourse or Exchange, in 1834. At considerable expense it has been much improved in appearance. Its reading-room is supplied with Brazilian and foreign newspapers. Beneath its portico the merchants of different nations meet in the morning to negotiate their respective affairs.

Adjoining the Praca is the Alfandega, or Custom-house. The extensive warehouses of this establishment extend to the sea-side, and goods are landed under cover from boats or lighters, and then warehoused until a requisition is formally made for their examination and delivery.

The commercial houses have usually a custom-house clerk, whose business it is to pass goods at the Alfandega, and which relieves strangers from any trouble.

In getting through the *portão grande* of the customs, about the time that its toll-gate is being closed up for the day, boxes, bales, and packages of every species of goods, cases of furniture, pipes of wine, and coils of rope, present confused heaps, among which are crowds of clerks, feitors, and negroes, who rush and vociferate to seize on their packages.

In the same street is the Correio Geral, or General Post-Office. The larger mails are forwarded and received by the coast, and generally by sailing vessels. The inland mails depart once in five days. They are despatched and received by means of men on horseback or by foot carriers. Charges for postage are moderate.

Owing to the warmth of the climate, there is no necessity for closed doors in Brazil, but ventilation is necessary. Each door is hung with a green cloth, bearing the imperial coat of arms, and resembling the national flag, which is a sphere of gold on a cross of the Order of Christ, surrounded by a circle of stars in silver, representing the different provinces of the empire; the escutcheon is surmounted by the imperial crown, and supported by a wreath of coffee tree and the tobacco plant. The Brazilians enthusiastically admire their flag; and it is daily exhibited, suspended over doors, or over their forts and shipping.

their shirt is thrown aside for the time as an incumbrance. Each one takes a bag of coffee upon his head, weighing one hundred and sixty pounds, and when all are ready they start off upon a measured trot, which soon increases to a rapid run.

As one hand is sufficient to steady the load, several of them frequently carry musical instruments in the other, resembling children's rattle-boxes; these they shake to the double quick time of some wild Ethiopian ditty, which they all join in singing as they run. Music has a powerful effect in exhilarating the spirits of the negro, and certainly no one should deny him the privilege of softening his hard lot by producing the harmony of sounds, which are sweet to him, however uncouth to other ears. It is said, however, that an attempt was at one time made to secure greater quietness in the streets, by forbidding the negroes to sing. As a consequence they performed little or no work, so the restriction was in a short time taken off. Certain it is, that they now avail themselves of their vocal privileges at pleasure, whether in singing and shouting to each other as they run, or in proclaiming to the people the various articles they carry about for sale. The impression made upon the stranger by the mingled sound of their hundred voices falling upon his ear at once, is not soon forgotten.

The streets of Rio have descriptive names: for example, those which lead out of the Rua Direita at right angles with it, are Rua dos Pescadores, Rua do Sabão, Rua da Alfandega, Rua do Rozario, Rua do Ouvidor. Parallel with the Rua Direita are the Rua da Quitanda, the great mart for dry goods, and the Rua dos Ourives, in which most of the jewellers and artisans in gold and silver are located. The Rua do Ouvidor is chiefly occupied by French, whose shops are filled with rich and fancy goods.

On the corners of several of the streets are niches with images of some grim saint or Madonnas. Candles are lighted, novenas are sung, and prayers are offered in front of these images, though many are in a state of decay.

"There are," says Mr. Kidder, "within the city and its suburbs about fifty churches and chapels. They are generally among the most costly and imposing edifices of the country, although many of them have but little to boast as respects either plan or finish. They may be found of various form and style. Some are octagonal, some are in the form of the Roman and some of the Grecian cross, while others are merely oblong. The church of the Candellaria is one of the largest, with spires and a handsome front. Like nearly every other building for ecclesiastical purposes in the country, it stands as a memento of past generations.

"The chapels of the convents are in several instances larger, and probably more expensive, than any of the churches. That of the convent of St. Benedict is one of the most ancient, having been repaired, according to an inscription it bears, in 1671. The order of the Benedictines is by far the richest in the empire, possessing houses and lands of vast extent, though the number of monks is at present quite small."

In Rio de Janeiro all the most elevated and commanding sites of its vicinity are occupied by churches and convents.

Of the hospitals of Rio de Janeiro, there are several belonging to different Irmandades, or Brotherhoods. "These Brotherhoods are not dissimilar to the beneficial societies of England and America, though on a more extended scale. They are generally composed of laymen, and are denominated third Orders, as, for example, Ordem terceira do Carmo, da Boa Morte, do Bom Jesus do Calvario. The Brotherhoods contribute to the erection and support of churches, provide for the sick, bury the dead, and support masses for souls. In short, next after the state, they are the most efficient auxiliaries for the support of the religious establishment of the country. Many of them, in the lapse of years, have become rich by the receipt of donations and legacies, and membership in such is highly prized.

"The Foundling Hospital is sometimes called *Casa da Roda*, in allusion to the wheel in which infants are deposited from the streets, and by a semi-revolution conveyed within the walls of the building.

“That such institutions are the offspring of a mistaken philanthropy, is as evident in Brazil as it can be in any country. Not only do they encourage licentiousness, but they foster the most palpable inhumanity. Out of 3630 infants exposed in Rio during ten years anterior to 1840, only 1024 were living at the end of that period. In the year 1838—1839, 449 were deposited in the wheel, of whom six were found dead when taken out; many expired the first day after their arrival, and 239 died in a short period.

“The Asylum for Female Orphans, Recolhimento, is a very popular establishment. It is chiefly supplied from the Foundling Hospital.

“The annual expenses of the Misericordia are from 80,000 to 100,000 dollars. A small portion of its receipts are provided for by certain tributes at the custom-house, another portion by lotteries, and the balance by donations and the rent of properties which belong to the institution through purchase and legacies. The Foundling Hospital and Recolhimento have been in existence about 100 years. The original establishment of the Misericordia dates back as far as 1582. It took place under the auspices of that distinguished Jesuit, Jozé de Anchieta.”

There is, at Rio de Janeiro, a scarcity of inns and boarding-houses. “There are several French and Italian hotels, with restaurants and rooms to rent; and these are chiefly supported by the numerous foreigners constantly arriving and temporarily residing in the place. But among the native population, and intended for Brazilian patronage, there are only eight or ten inns in a city of 200,000 inhabitants, and scarcely any of these exceed the dimensions of a private house. It is almost inconceivable how the numerous visitors to this great emporium, from every part of the empire, find necessary accommodations. It may safely be presumed that they could not, without a heavy draft upon the hospitalities of the inhabitants, with whom, in many instances, a letter of introduction secures a home. In the lack of such a resort, the sojourner rents a room, and by the aid of his servant and a few articles of furniture, soon manages to live, with more or less frequent resorts to some casa de pasto, or victualling-house. Most of the members of the National Assembly are understood to keep up domestic establishments during their sojourn in the capital. As a consequence of this lack of inns and boarding-houses, nearly all the commercial firms are obliged to maintain a table for the convenience of their clerks and guests. On the whole, this arrangement is probably better for the morals and habits of the young men they employ, who thus live under the immediate supervision of their superiors, than if they were to be scattered abroad promiscuously, as those in a similar condition often are in our own cities. Many of the foreign residents, particularly the English and Americans, locate their families in some of the extensive suburbs of the city, and go to and fro morning and evening. The municipal regulations of the city are in some respects peculiar.”—*Kidder's Brazil*.

There is a public slaughter-house (*matadouro*), where all the cattle consumed in the town are slaughtered, but there are no public markets. Butchers open private stalls, especially in the *Rua de San Jozé*. Vegetables, fruits, and poultry are abundantly offered for sale in most of the public places. At these places, also, various dishes are cooked and eaten on the spot by the slaves and lower classes.*

The waters of Brazil abound in numerous varieties of fish, with which the market is well supplied. Horticulture is in a rude state, but the indigenous fruits of the country are delicious and abundant, among which are oranges, limes, cocoa-nuts, pine-apples, mangoes, bananas, pomegranates, mammoons, goyabas, jambos, *araças*, mangabas, and many other species of delicious fruit. These are brought in profusion to the markets, and hawked about in baskets on their heads by slaves and free negroes. Most sorts of goods are sold in the same way. Pedlars are constantly chanting the excellence of their commodities.

Mr. Walsh remarked, in 1828, that beggars were seldom seen in the streets of Rio. Mr. Kidder says this was far from being the case in 1838. Through the lenity or carelessness of the police, great numbers of vagrants were continually perambulating the streets and importuning for alms; and mendicants of every description had their chosen places in the thoroughfares of the town, where they regularly waited, and saluted the passers-by with a mournful drawl.

The House of Correction is situated on the brow of a high hill. Its grounds are surrounded by high granite walls, constructed by the prisoners. Near it is a quarry, where numbers of prisoners are employed. All are made to labour in some kind of work. The more refractory are chained together. Slaves are also sent here to be corrected. Mr. Kidder says,—“they are received at any hour of the day or night, and retained free of expense as long as their masters choose to leave them. It would be remarkable if scenes of extreme cruelty did not sometimes occur here.”

There are other prisons in this city. By the latest report at hand, there were in the two other principal prisons “366 prisoners, committed on the following charges:—Sixty-two homicide, four threats, fifty robbery, nine swindling, three perjury, seventy-nine theft, twenty-seven assault and battery, eleven attempts to

* “As in all other countries,” says Mr. Kidder, “the style of living in Brazil varies very much with the condition of families, from the most extravagant etiquette of the wealthy, to the plain substantial diet of the common people. But, I venture to affirm, that whosoever has dined with a respectable Brazilian family, at least within the precincts of any of the cities of the empire, has seen genteel provisions for the table. I have no disposition to edify the reader of these pages with detailed descriptions of every dinner or pic-nic in which I had a share, or of dilating upon the marvellous adventures of such occasions. But from my own observation I became convinced that the Brazilians have learned to appreciate sufficiently the various luxuries with which foreign commerce supplies their markets, while they also understand the use of those indigenous productions and peculiar dishes of the country, which foreigners are slow to appreciate, but which possess a real excellence.”

rob, six use of arms, three calumny, two prohibited games, twenty-three counterfeiting, thirty-nine committed abroad, crimes unknown, three enslaving free persons, two aiding prisoners to escape, six resistance to authority, three suspicion of being fugitive slaves, two rape, two defrauding revenue, twenty-one sentenced for correction. Only 159 of these persons had been tried and sentenced. Five were to suffer capital punishment. Eleven of those sentenced for correction had been transferred from the Calabouço. This is a dungeon on the point of land stretching into the bay, just in front of the city, where fugitive slaves are confined until called for by their masters."

There are also places of confinement in the different forts.

"The streets of few cities," says Mr. Kidder, "are better lighted than those of Rio. Throughout the bounds of the municipality large lamps are arranged at given distances from each other, not upon posts permanently, but with certain iron fixtures, by which they are lowered for cleaning and lighting. Oil is universally used, gases not having as yet been introduced. A much smaller number of police officers is required to be on duty, and many crimes are prevented by the dissipation of that darkness under which they would seek a covert.

"Whatever may have been the facts in former years, great quietness prevails throughout the city at night. The head-quarters of the police are in an ancient public building, in the Rua da Guada Velha. That department of the municipal government is understood to have been administered with unwonted discretion and efficiency during a few years past.

"All foreigners, before landing, are required to deliver their passports to the visiting officer of the port. These passports are handed over by that officer to the secretary of the police, on whom the foreigner must call, within a given time, to verify the description of his passport, and to receive a licence to reside in the country. The visit is usually one of ceremony.

"All children born in the city, whether rich or poor, bond or free, black, white, or yellow, to be vaccinated as a preventive of the small-pox. To provide for this, a Vaccine Institute (Junta Vaccinica) has been established, which is open all Thursdays and Sundays. A number of professors are always in attendance here, and vaccination is performed on all who come or are brought to receive it, free of charge. The patient is required to return on the eighth day to have the pustule examined. From some of the best specimens of its operation the virus is taken and inserted in other arms, and thus perpetually preserved.

"The lower floor of the City Hall (Camara Municipal) is devoted to the use of the Vaccine Institute. This edifice is located on the east side of the Campo da Honra.* A mingled throng is generally present on the mornings when vaccination is performed at the institute. Here will be seen a company of *negros*

* Campo da Honra and Campo da Acclamação, are the modern names of the Campoda Santa Anna.

novos, or newly-imported Africans; there an Indian and a tropeiro from the interior; while on all sides of the house, and on benches placed at intervals through the sala, are nurses, and mothers, and children in abundance."

In front of the Camara Municipal several elegant views may be enjoyed. On the left, looking toward the north-east, may be seen a large and much frequented fountain, the military arsenal, and the hill on which the bishop's palace is located.

"The National Museum is open to public visitation every Thursday. The collection of curiosities is interesting, but not extensive. That of minerals has been much augmented by the cabinet of Jozé Bonifacio de Andrada, who early in life had been professor of mineralogy in the University of Coimbra, in Portugal, where he published several works that gained him a reputation in Europe. The department of mineralogy is well arranged, but contains more foreign than native specimens. Brazilian curiosities are not numerous in other departments: among the aboriginal relics are a fair collection of ornaments and feather dresses from Pará and Matto Grosso.

The imperial academy of the Fine Arts was founded in 1824, by a decree of the National Assembly. It has a director, four professors, viz., of painting and landscape, of architecture, of sculpture, and of design, with a number of assistants. It is open to all who wish to be instructed. About seventy students are matriculated annually. In 1843 the whole number of students was 100.

The Imperial Academy of Medicine is the old Jesuits' college, near the Morro do Castello, and is attended by from 100 to 150 students. Several of the professors have been educated in Europe. It is in close connexion with the Hospital da Misericordia.

There are also military and naval academies. At fifteen years of age, any Brazilian lad who understands the elementary branches of a common education, and the French language, so as to render it with facility into the national idiom or Portuguese, may, on personal application, be admitted to either of these institutions. The latter is located on board a man-of-war, at anchor in the harbour.

The Collegio de Dom Pedro II., established in 1837, corresponds to the lyceums established in most of the provinces.

The number of collegios and aulas, for elementary instruction, in Rio is numerous. The public schools, of which there are twenty-eight, with about 1000 pupils, are still insufficient, and private individuals, Portuguese, French, English, and Italian, have been induced to open schools.

The episcopal seminary of San Joseph, under the direction of the diocesan bishop, for educating young men for the priesthood, was founded as early as 1740. It has a rector, vice-rector, professors of doctrines and morals, of philosophy, of Latin, of chanting, of French, and English.

The national library consists chiefly of the books originally belonging to the royal library of Portugal, brought over by Dom John VI., who opened it to the public.

The English, the German, and the Portuguese residents have each established libraries for their respective use.

With the exception of pamphlets and small volumes, scarcely any original works have been published. Mr. Kidder informs us the revolutions and political agitations of Portugal have had a tendency to drive the literati of that kingdom to more quiet scenes. Many of these have taken up their abode in Paris, and it has become their interest to write and publish for Brazil as well as for Portugal. Moreover, these are the degenerate days of Portuguese literature, in which the pure Lusitanian is corrupted by Gallicisms, and the press is burdened with translations from other tongues, almost to the exclusion of original works. Every petty novel from the feuilletons of Paris, must be translated to make a book in Lisbon and in Rio de Janeiro. So much are the multitude occupied with reading these useless productions, that they have but little time or inclination to inquire for what is original and substantial. Besides, the French language has usurped the place of Latin in Brazil. A knowledge of it is required as a prerequisite to an entrance into all public institutions of the higher grade, and it is very generally read. Hence, French books are in demand, and to a great extent usurp the place of those in the mother tongue. Almost every vessel from Havre also, brings out a large invoice of French books to be sold at auction.

Book auctions, indeed, are of very frequent occurrence. Europeans who are about to retire to their native country, and Brazilians who go abroad, generally dispose of their libraries by public sale.

The newspaper press in Rio issues four daily, two tri-weekly, and from six to ten weekly papers and irregular sheets. "During the session of the national assembly, the proceedings and debates of that body are published at length on the morning after their occurrence. The established papers are not, as in this country, the organs of different political parties. While they enter warmly into political discussions, they seem to consider it a duty to be always on the side of the government, or the party in power. Hence, however much any change is deprecated before it occurs, yet when it is once consummated, it is chronicled as a glorious event. If the party in the minority wish to abuse those in power, they must establish a journal for the express purpose, or publish their correspondence in handbills, which are sent out as an accompaniment to the daily news, into whose columns it could not be admitted.

"Let the minority, however, once rise into power, and these columns are all at its service; being still zealously devoted to the support of the government. Much

pains is taken by some of the papers to give commercial intelligence fully and correctly, while none of the sheets are filled with stereotyped advertisements.

"The matter of the advertising columns is renewed almost daily, and is perused by great numbers of general readers, for the sake of its piquancy and its variety."

"Not a few of these annuncios appear singular. It was announced at one time, that a solemn *Te Deum* would be celebrated on a given day, in the church of San Francisco de Paula, for the happy restoration of Bahia, subsequent to a rebellion in that city, and that his imperial majesty would attend. A few days after, the following appeared:—"The committee to make arrangements for the *Te Deum* in San Francisco de Paula, thinking that they would better satisfy the philanthropic designs of those who have subscribed for that object, by remitting the money in their hands to Bahia, to be divided among the poor widows and orphans, and especially, since *due thanks* have already, in another church, been offered to God for the restoration; have resolved not to have the proposed *Te Deum* sung, of which persons invited are now informed."

The daily papers of Rio resemble those of Paris very much in form, style of printing, and arrangement. The bottom of each sheet contains the *Folhetim*. The *Folhetim do Jornal do Commercio*, during an entire year contained only one original tale, the remainder of its contents being translated from the French.

There is a Medical Review, and a Brazilian and Foreign Quarterly. The last periodical has been conducted with great spirit and literary enterprize, and promises to be of utility to the country: but it is often filled with translations.

The Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute, was founded at Rio de Janeiro, in 1838, and has produced beneficial effects. This association adopted as its fundamental object the collecting, arranging, and publishing or preserving documents illustrative of the history and geography of Brazil. The General Assembly voted a yearly subsidy of 2000 milreis in aid of its objects, and the department for foreign affairs instructed the *attachés* of the Brazilian embassies in Europe, to procure and to copy papers of interest, that exist in the archives of different courts, relative to the early history of Brazil. During the first year of its existence, it numbered about 400 members and correspondents, and had collected above 300 manuscripts. It publishes at length, in a Quarterly Review and Journal, the proceedings of the society.

ENVIRONS OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

The immediate neighbourhood and environs of Rio de Janeiro are beautifully interesting. The Praya do Flamingo, is a sandy beach, deriving its name from the flamingos by which it was formerly frequented. A handsome row of residences extends along its shore. "Their occupants," says Mr. Kidder, "are daily refreshed with strong sea-breezes, and entertained by night and by day with the heavy and measured music of the ocean's roar." Parallel with this praya runs the Catête, a wide

and important street, leading from the city to Botafogo. About half-way between the town and the last-mentioned suburb, is the Larangeiras, or the valley of orange groves. A shallow but limpid stream gurgles along a wide and deep ravine lying between two precipitous spurs of the Corcovado mountain. Passing up its banks you see scores of *lavadeiras*, or washerwomen, standing in the stream and beating their clothes upon the boulders of rock which lie scattered along the bottom. Many of these washerwomen go from the city early in the morning, carrying their huge bundles of soiled linen on their heads, and at evening return with them, purified in the stream and bleached in the sun. Fires are smoking in various places, where they cook their meals; and groups of infant children are seen playing around, some of whom have been large enough to tottle after their mothers; but most of them have been carried there on the backs of the heavily burdened slaves. Female slaves, of every occupation, may be seen carrying about their children.

“Up the valley of the Larangeiras is a mineral spring, *Agoa Ferrea*, indicating the chalybeate properties of the water, which at certain seasons of the year is much frequented. Near this place the road leads up the Corcovado, which may be ascended on horseback within a short distance of the summit. The ascent should be commenced early in the morning, while the air is cool and balmy, and while the dew yet sparkles on the foliage. The inclination is not very steep, although the path is narrow and uneven, having been worn by descending rains. The greater part of the mountain is covered with a dense forest, which varies in character with the altitude, but everywhere abounds in the most rare and luxurious plants. Towards the summit large trees become rare, while bamboos and ferns are more numerous. Flowering shrubs and parasites extend the whole way. At no great distance from the top is a rancho, where one may breakfast.

“The horses are here left behind, and in a few minutes' walk the thicket ceases. Above this the rocks were covered with only a thin soil, and but here and there a shrub nestling in the crevices. What appears like a point from below, is, in reality, a bare rock, of sufficient dimensions to admit of fifty persons standing on it to enjoy the view at once, although on every side, save that from which it is reached, its sides are extremely precipitous. In order to protect persons against accidents, iron posts had been inserted, and railings of the same material extended around the edge of the rock. Save this slight indication of art, all around exhibited the wildness and sublimity of nature.

“The elevation of the mountain, 2000 feet, is just sufficient to give a clear bird's-eye view of one of the richest and most extensive prospects the human eye ever beheld. The harbour, and its islands; the forts, and the shipping of the bay; the whole city, from San Christovão to Botafogo; the botanical garden; the Lagoa das Freitas, the Tejuco, the Gavia, and the Sugar-Loaf mountains; the islands outside the harbour; the wide-rolling ocean on the one hand, and the

measureless circle of mountains and shores on the other; all lie expanded around and beneath.

"From the sides of this mountain various small streamlets flow downward. By means of artificial channels, these are thrown together to supply the aqueduct of the city. In descending, this remarkable water-course is followed, until the city is entered, at the grand archway leading from the hill of Santa Theresa to that of San Antonio. Nor is this section of the route less interesting to those fond of nature. All along negroes are met, waving their nets in chase of the gorgeous butterflies and other insects, which might be seen fluttering across the path and nestling in the surrounding flowers and foliage.

"Many slaves are trained from early life to collect and preserve specimens in entomology and botany, and, by following this as a constant business, gather immense collections."

The aqueduct which supplies Rio de Janeiro with pure fresh water is a "vaulted channel of mason work, passing sometimes above and sometimes beneath the surface of the ground, with a gentle declivity, and air-holes at given distances."

Between the city of Rio de Janeiro and the entrance from the ocean lies the nearly circular indentation of Botafogo, which, with its surrounding mountains, including the lofty Corcovado on the right, the Sugar-Loaf on the left, the distant *Gavia*, or topsail mountain, and the *Tres Irmaos*, or Three Brothers, forms a most picturesque view. Praya Vermelha, below the Sugar-Loaf, extends from the fortress of San Joaõ to Fort Praya Vermelha. The latter is a station for recruits to the army. Here the unfortunate aborigines taken from the upper Amazon and other parts are drilled. This fortress was the scene of a sanguinary outbreak of the German soldiers and the Brazilians.

On the beach of the Atlantic, called Copa Cabana, beyond the Sugar-Loaf, are a few fishermen's huts and a few old houses. The sand of this beach is as white as the surf which rolls over it.

The Botanical Garden is situated west of Botafogo, in a spot not well chosen, though much resorted to. It is the property of the government, and the National Assembly grants annually a sum for its support and improvement. Mr. Kidder, who does not speak favourably of its condition, says,—"Much pains were taken at an early day to introduce choice trees and plants from India; and cloves, cinnamon, pepper, and tea, are among its present productions. Recently, the tall *nogueiras da India*, or Sumatra nut-trees, which were planted for the sole benefit of their shade, have to some extent, given place to mulberry and fruit trees, capable of at once shading the walks, and of adding to the valuable products of the soil."

Engenho Velho, the principal suburb of Rio Janeiro, lies on the west, and the street or road leading to it is through the Campo da Acclamação, and the

Cidade Nova, by the Rua de San Pedro, the Aterrado, or highway to San Christovão, and the imperial palace of Boa Vista.

At the foot of the Tejuco Mountains, there is a fertile and somewhat extensive plain, within the limits of the city, but occupied by detached houses and wide streets nearly all bordered with hedges of flowering mimosas. The houses are not remote from each other, nearly every house in this suburb is surrounded by a garden, and embowered in the foliage and shade of fruit and other trees. Mr. Kidder, who resided in this suburb, says,—“For the very perfection of rural beauty, few spots on the earth can equal Engenho Velho. Our residence was in the Rua de San Francisco Xavier, within sight of the parish church, and probably at no great distance from the spot on which the Jesuits had anciently established the Sugar Engenho that gave name to the vicinity. The house in which we lived was contiguous to a large chacara, as the land attached to a country seat is usually denominated. In front of the palace of Boa Vista may be enjoyed a magnificent view, looking towards the city. The eye first rests upon the rich foliage of the trees bordering the imperial grounds at the foot of the hill; next upon several groups of houses near the public road, among which stands that monument of the first emperor's shame, the palace he built as a residence for his publicly acknowledged mistress, the Marchioness of Santos. A little to the left, on a green eminence, is the Hospital dos Lazaros; and then, the beautiful sheet of water formed by a recess of the bay, which stretches itself around a high ridge of granite hills, and at high tide seeks to return upon the rear of the city itself.”

Boats are always plying over different parts of the bay of Rio Janeiro with passengers and produce. “By taking a seat in one of them, at the nearest place of embarkation, you may in a few moments be set down at the Sacco d'Alferes, from which a moderate walk will take you into the city, either by a rough winding path over the hill, to the Campo da Honra, or along the sea-side, by the Praya de Gamboa, where the English cemetery is located, and through the Vallongo, where the slave mart used formerly to be held. If, however, it is preferred to pass the whole distance by water, the course will be sufficiently near the shore to show all the beauties of its vegetation, and of the buildings which line its successive prayas. These buildings are most of them low, and insignificant with respect to architecture, but their whitened walls always present a beautiful contrast to the greenness of the vegetation around them.

“Rounding the Ponta da Saude, you come to the general anchorage of all the merchant vessels that may be receiving or awaiting cargo. Here, may be seen the long, low, clipper-built brigs and schooners that ply between the coasts of Brazil and Africa. There, is the heavy, dull-sailing bark of the Norwegian, or the Hamburghese. On either hand, over vessels of every class, from the coasting smack to the largest freighting ships, may be seen the flags of Spain, Portugal,

Sardinia, Tuscany, Naples, France, Belgium, Bremen, Austria, Denmark, Sweden, England, the United States, the South American Republics, and Brazil. These vessels are required to anchor at sufficient distance apart to swing clear of each other in all the different positions in which the ebbing and flowing tide may place them; thus boats may pass among them at pleasure. Here and there guard-ships are stationed, to prevent smuggling; and near by are several hulks of Brazilian men-of-war, one of which is used as the seat of the Naval Academy.

“Having passed through the entire extent of this anchorage, your boat is opposite the Convent of San Bento, and veering to the right, you pass into the channel between the Ilha das Cobras and the mainland. Beneath the hill on which the monastery is located is the Naval Arsenal, with a small yard tastefully arranged; and just beyond it are the red stairs (*escadas vermelhas*), a well-known landing-place, contiguous to the Praya dos Mineiros, and the Rua Direita.”

The communication between different parts of the city has within late years been greatly facilitated by an omnibus company, which established regular lines of carriages between the Praça da Constituição, a central point in the city, and Laranjeiras and Botafogo on the one side, and San Christovão and Engenho Velho on the other. These carriages are each drawn by four mules.

From Engenho Velho an excursion is easily made to Tejuco, a beautiful place amphitheatrically surrounded by mountain peaks and with several coffee plantations. The pure air of these mountains renders Tejuco a place much resorted to, especially in the hot months of December, January, and February.

The grounds attached to the Palace of Boa Vista, are extensive, and intersected by long walks, shaded by splendid mangueiras and other trees, along the borders of natural, and artificial streams of water. Here may be seen stone troughs, at which strong washerwomen are beating clothes; and there is a fishing pond with a boiling fountain in the centre, and a boat alongside, in which his majesty used to amuse himself.

The palace is situated on an eminence at the right of the gardens. It was originally a private residence, presented by its generous owner to Dom John VI. It has been gradually enlarged and improved, and thus rendered very suitable to the purposes to which it is devoted. Eleven leagues beyond San Christovão, in a westerly direction, is the imperial fazenda of Santa Cruz. This plantation is occasionally visited by the imperial family as a place of recreation. It is an immense estate, upon which vast numbers of slaves are employed. It was, at an early day, the site of a Jesuit college, and for many years past had been the property of the government; but still is only partially redeemed from a state of nature. That portion of it which has been reduced to cultivation, is said to be in an indifferent state, notwithstanding much expense has been lavished upon it. This circumstance is sufficient to indicate the generally low state of agriculture.

in the empire; in further proof of which, it would only be necessary to state that the plough is almost wholly unknown.

Of the numerous islands in the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, Ilha do Governador, or Governor's Island, is the largest, being in length twelve miles from east to west. Nearly all the islands are inhabited, and under tolerable cultivation.

The most important places upon the borders of the bay are Magé, Piedade, Porta da Estrella, and Iguassú. To these several places great quantities of produce are carried down on the backs of animals from the interior, and then conveyed in small vessels to the city.

CHAPTER XIV.

COMMERCE OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

THE port of Rio de Janeiro, with its capacious and safe harbours is admirably situated for commerce. It is much resorted to by vessels in distress, navigating the ocean between the equator and the Capes of Good Hope and Horn. Ships of war and merchant vessels bound round Cape Horn or the Cape of Good Hope, find this a most convenient place to procure water and fresh provisions. Ships from Europe and North America meet in this great conveying harbour ships sailing to or arriving from Bombay, Canton, New Holland, New South Wales, Valparaiso, and the various islands of the Pacific, as well as California and Oregon, on the western coast of North America.

Rio de Janeiro has become the chief emporium of Brazilian commerce, and especially of its mining districts. All the ports on the coast south of Bahia, and it may be said to the frontiers of the Banda-Oriental—to Monte Video, send most of their produce for exportation to Europe or for home consumption to Rio de Janeiro. Farinha, beans, bacon, and dried or salt meat are brought to the metropolis. Hides, horns, dried meat, tallow, and bacon, with rice and wheat flour, come by sea, chiefly from the provinces of Rio Grande do Sul, and San Paulo. The latter furnishes also cheese, the bark of the mangrove-tree for tanning, with some gum-woods, sugar, and rum. Santa Catherina sends also sole leather, onions, garlic, dried fish, and pottery. The small harbours to the north of Rio de Janeiro, viz., San João do Paraiba, San Salvador, Macahe, Porto Seguro, Caravelhas, Victoria, &c., supply vegetables and fish, beams, planks, hoops, Brazil-wood, bark, charcoal, fuel, cocoa-nuts, tobacco, sugar, rum, rice, &c. Cape Frio sends lime, tubs and casks made of the trunk of the gamelleira (fig-tree). Ilha Grande furnishes pottery and lime. Bahia sends *slaves*, tobacco, millstones, *tucum* (thread made of the fibres of the palm), and cocoa-nuts; Pernambuco, salt, saltpetre, &c. Monte Video, hides, horns,

leather, &c. This coasting trade is principally carried on in small one or two-masted ships, and keeps up a constant intercourse between the whole Brazilian coast and the capital. From the mouth of the Plata to Rio de Janeiro, the voyage generally occupies from twenty-two to thirty days; from Santa Catharina and Rio Grande do Sul, in from fifteen to six-and-twenty days: from Porto Seguro in from eight to fifteen; from Bahia in from twelve to twenty; much depending, however, on the season and the winds.

The inland trade is extensive between Rio de Janeiro and the neighbouring provinces, with San Paulo and Minas, to which there are passable roads for animals over the mountains. The latter sends its cotton, coffee, and tobacco chiefly to Rio, though further from some parts than Bahia, the road being less difficult: it exports also, besides its precious stones, cheese, marmalade, brown sugar, and very coarse cottons for clothing the slaves and poor shepherds of the southern provinces. From Rio Grande do Sul and San Paulo, many thousands of oxen, horses, and mules are annually driven to Rio Janeiro. The inhabitants of the remote provinces of Matto Grosso and Goyaz bring gold in bars and dust, precious stones, and smuggled diamonds (the latter being contraband), to exchange for European manufactures. To the smaller ports of Brazil Rio exports all sorts of European goods, to both the western and eastern coasts of Africa English and Portuguese goods; to Europe sugar, coffee, cotton, tobacco, hides, otters' skins, horse-hair, &c.; and in speaking of trade, we must not omit the abhorred traffic in human beings, which disgraces Rio de Janeiro.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF RIO DE JANEIRO, AND OF OTHER BRAZILIAN PORTS.

Regulation relative to Brazil-wood.—The exportation of Brazil-wood from the ports of Brazil, has always been an exclusive privilege of the imperial government; but, as abuses have occurred, and some vessels, perhaps through ignorance of the Brazilian laws in relation to the trade, have exported on private account the said article to foreign ports, it is made known, to those whom it may concern, that the laws of Brazil forbid entirely the exportation of the article by private individuals, and impose a fine of thirty milreis (fifteen dollars) a ton on each vessel that may take the wood by contraband, from any part of the empire, to foreign countries. The fine will be enforced even after the departure of the vessel from Brazil, for which purpose the government has taken all necessary measures to arrest the aiders and abettors in the clandestine shipment.

Tonnage Duties of Brazil.—Art. 1. After the 11th November, 1844, the anchorage dues upon Brazilian and foreign ships in foreign trade will be reduced to 900 reis, and the dues upon the Brazilian coastwise vessels to ninety reis a ton, for what period soever they may remain in port.

Art. 2. Ships arriving in ballast, and sailing with cargo, and arriving with cargo, and sailing in ballast, will pay one-half the dues—entering and clearing in ballast, one-third dues.

Art. 3. Ships entering for provisions, or in Franguia to try the market, whether in ballast or with cargo, will pay one-third.

Art. 4. Ships entering under average, or in distress, will pay nothing, unless they discharge or take cargo; being allowed to discharge the necessary cargo for the payment of the expenses incurred.

Art. 5. Ships that have paid in any port of the empire the anchorage dues of the articles 1st, 2nd, and 3rd, arriving in another port in the same voyage, pay nothing excepting taking cargo, and then have to pay the difference of the dues.

Art. 6. Coastwise vessels, trading between the ports of the empire, will pay one-half the dues when half the crew be composed of Brazilian citizens; and will pay nothing if, besides this circumstance, they be employed in the coast or in the high sea fishery.

Art. 7. Vessels of countries that will charge more dues upon Brazilian tonnage, or port dues, higher than dues paid by their own vessels, are subject, in the ports of Brazil, to pay one-third more of the dues established, or to be raised to the same difference imposed by the said countries upon the Brazilian vessels.

LUIS HENRIQUE FERREIRA D'AGUIAR, Consul-General.

To guide Owners and Captains of Vessels bound to the Brazilian Ports.

To despatch a vessel at the office of the consulate of Brazil are necessary :

Three copies of the manifest, one certified at the custom-house.

The invoice of *all* and *every* shipper.

Bills of lading.

Bill of health.

List of crew; and passengers, if any, must take passports.

It is also necessary to give three days' notice at the consulate, of the intended departure of vessels, for any port in Brazil.

Art. 146. The master of any vessel sailing with a cargo for any of the Brazilian ports ought to bring two copies of his manifest, exactly alike, which must contain :

Sec. 1. The name, description, and tonnage of the vessel.

Sec. 2. The master's name, with the date at the end, and his signature.

Sec. 3. The port where he took the cargo, stated in the manifest.

Sec. 4. The port or ports said cargo is bound to.

Sec. 5. The marks, countermarks, number of packages, and their descriptions, such as bales, boxes, chests, pipes, half pipes, barrels, tierces, &c.

Sec. 6. A declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandise in each package as near as possible, or of several homogeneous packages with the same mark, and of the goods stowed loose.

Sec. 7. The names of the shippers and consignees, or whether they are to order. Every thing must be written in words at length, except the numbers of the packages, and on entire sheets of paper not pieced to one another.

Art. 147. When a vessel has taken cargo at more than one port, she ought to bring a manifest from each one of the ports whereat she may have received shipment.

Art. 148. At the end of the manifests, the master shall state the number of passengers, both cabin and steerage ones, and make all other declarations he may deem necessary.

CUSTOMS' TARIFF OF BRAZIL.

Imperial Decree of the 12th of August, 1844:

Ordering the carrying into effect of the regulation and tariff of the custom houses of the empire.

I am pleased in virtue of the authority conferred on the government, by the 10th article of the law of 243 of the 30th of November, 1841, that from the 11th day of November of the present year forward, the regulations and tariff issued herewith, signed by Manoel Alves Branco of my council of state, minister and Secretary of State for the Finance Department, and President of the Public National Treasury, shall be observed, and the said minister shall so understand it, and cause it to be executed. Palace of Rio de Janeiro, 12th of August 1844, twenty-third year of the independence, and of the empire. With the sign manual H. M., the emperor.

(Signed)

MANOEL ALVES BRANCO.

Regulation for carrying into effect the tariff of the custom houses of the empire of Brazil.

ARTICLE I.—From the 11th of November of the present year, the clearance for consumption of merchandise, coming from foreign countries, and which may then, or shall thereafter, be stored in the custom houses, or stores belonging thereto, of the empire, shall be regulated in the following manner.

ARTICLE II.—Snuff or tobacco in powder, cigars, and paper ditto, and tobacco in rolls or leaf, shall pay sixty per cent.

ARTICLE III.—Bags made of bessens, or India sacking, knives in the shape of daggers, cushions for carriages, cut paving stones, stone door posts for coach houses, and for other doors and windows, cut stones for water-courses, "cepas," and for cornices and corners of houses, refined sugar, ditto crystalised, or in any manner composed, tea, ardent spirits, beer, cider, gin, marasquino, or other liqueurs, and wine of whatever quality and produce shall pay fifty per cent.

ARTICLE IV.—Carpets, ordinary bessens or sacking, scales of whatever quality, and ready-made clothes, not specified in the tariff, playing cards, brushes, with ivory handles, Chinese fire-works on cards, or any other artificial fire-works, painted paper, ditto silver or gold, being of fine quality, paper for papering rooms, painted in groups or landscapes, large sized foolscap paper imperial ditto, or any other not specified in the tariff, powder, scented soap, common ditto, mould candles, composition (stearina) ditto, prunes, or any other fruit in glass bottles, or tin cases, either dry, preserved, or in spirits, chocolate made from ordinary cocoa, vinegar, gigs, carriages, or carriage-boxes, frames, wheels, harness for either one or the other, matting for houses, carts for carrying people, sociables, side saddles, porcelain, ink and sand stands, and any other article of crockeryware, not included in the tariff, chandeliers, liqueur or wine glasses, plain of ordinary glass (No. 1), those of either blown or cut glass ordinary, and the German ordinary cut, and such like (No. 2), those of plain glass, blown or cut, with cut or plain bottoms, ordinary (No. 3), champagne, or beer glasses, mugs, glasses (direitos), from ten to one in a quart, glass bottles holding a quart or more, all these articles being of No. 1 and 2; black or dark glass bottles holding the same quantity, including those which are used for liqueurs, or Le Roy; tavern glasses far as one "Canada" (seven-tenths of a gallon) flasks of ordinary glass with stoppers of the same up to three pounds or more, or without stoppers of two pounds or more, those with wide mouths with stoppers of the same to hold four pounds or more, or without stoppers for opodeldoc, glasses for lamps, planks of mahogany or any other fine wood, and furniture made of any wood whatsoever, shall pay forty per cent.

ARTICLE V.—All other articles, except the following, imported from foreign countries shall pay thirty per cent.

1st. Steel, tar, zinc in bar or sheet, lead in ditto, ditto pewter in bars or rods, iron in bars, rods, plates, or tongues for foundries, tin, nutgall, tin in sheets, brass in plates, ivory, saltpetre, withes, cod fish, stock fish, or any other, either dry or salt, biscuit, jerked or corned meat, aniseed, wheat, flour, white or coloured kid, calves' skins for shoes, ditto varnished, pig skins, or ox-hides, green or dry, sole leather for shoemakers, or saddlers, copper, and copperas, all of which shall pay twenty-five per cent.

2nd. Wheat in grain, barilla, gold or silver wire, narrow gold or silver lace, wire covered with gold or silver thread (*fieras*), thread, fringe, spangles, gold lace (*pathe'a*), ribbon made of gold and silver wire (*passamano*) being of second class gold or silver, ordinary or false, laces of the same kind or woven with sewing silk, linen thread, cotton or silk laces, or *entremozo* of plain cotton, net laces of cotton, silk, or twist (*torcal*), cambric handkerchiefs of cotton or linen, and silk sashes, all of which shall pay twenty per cent.

3rd. Books, maps, geographical globes, mathematical instruments, surgical or chemical ditto, dress pieces, velvets, or damasks worked with silver or fine gold, sewing silk or twist, and hair for hair dressers, shall pay ten per cent.

4th. Gold or silver wire (*canalitho*) thread cord, narrow lace, wire covered with gold or silver thread, thread, fringe, gold lace, spangles, gold lace (*patheta*), lace, tapes, and all other articles of this nature being of fine gold or silver shall pay six per cent.

5th. Coals, gold for gilding, or any silver articles and utensils, shall pay five per cent.

6th. Gold or silver jewellery, or any manufactured gold articles shall pay four per cent.

7th. Loose diamonds and other precious stones, seeds, plants, and new races of useful animals, shall pay two per cent.

ARTICLE VI.—All these duties shall be calculated either by taking the valuation marked in the tariff which is annexed to this regulation, of the article to be cleared, as often as the quantity referred to in the said valuation be contained in the merchandise about to be cleared, or upon the invoice value, sworn to and signed by the principals of the commercial houses who clear the goods, when the same shall not be reformed by the seizures (*impugnacoes*) of the regulation of the 22nd of June, 1836 (which may always take place in such cases), taking the hundredth part of it multiplied by the "quota" of the duties, when the merchandise shall not have any particular fixed valuation in the tariff, but only a note of ad valorem duties.

ARTICLE VII.—The duties hitherto paid for clearances of trans-shipment, or re-exportation,

are reduced to one per cent upon the value of the merchandise, but this reduction depends upon the definitive approbation of the general legislative assembly, and therefore all those persons who require such clearances before the said approval be given, must find good security, if the goods be cleared for the coast of Africa, for the payment of fifteen and a half per cent, besides the one per cent above referred to : and of two and a half per cent if for any other places out of the empire the said duties to be paid into the public coffers, should this reduction not be approved.

ARTICLE VIII.—These clearances shall be calculated by dividing the valuation of the merchandise to be trans-shipped or re-exported by the number which represents the relation in which it stands as regards the value of the said merchandise, and taking the quotient, wholly or in part as often as the unities or parts thereof may be contained in the duties to be paid, or by arbitration as laid down in the 218th article of the regulation above referred to, when the merchandise shall have no fixed valuation in the tariff. The clearances for trans-shipment or re-exportation to ports within the empire, which are now effected without paying the duties of consumption, are provisionally suspended until a better regulation be made on this subject.

ARTICLE IX.—The additional imposts for business of the office (*expediente*) and warehouse rent, hitherto paid upon merchandise, shall henceforward be included in the duties for consumption, and in order to comply with the law which orders the separate entry of this latter, twenty per cent shall be deducted at the end of each month from the whole amount of the taxes and duties for consumption, and the sum so deducted shall be divided into seven parts, two of which shall be considered as equivalent to the one per cent destined as a six monthly security for the interest on the loan in London, and the other five as equivalent to the two and a half destined for the destroying of paper currency.

ARTICLE X.—All merchandise, whether cleared for consumption, trans-shipment, or re-exportation, shall pay one quarter per cent on its respective value for each month it may remain in the warehouses of the custom-houses of the empire, which shall be calculated in the same manner as laid down in the eighth article for the clearances for trans-shipment and re-exportation, giving, however, fifteen days free to "Estiva" merchandise, that is, liquid, soap, &c., and two months to dry goods.

ARTICLE XI.—Notes for clearances must declare the foreign measure or weight reduced to Brazilian, without which they will not be distributed ; foreign measure in length (*de extencao*) must always be reduced to the Brazilian "vara," and the others to the measure or weight by which the valuation is fixed in the tariff upon merchandise to be cleared, and which it ought to pay, or to that measure or weight by which the article is commonly sold in the market, should the duties be marked in the tariff ad valorem.

ARTICLE XII.—The officer (*feitor*), to whom the clearance shall be given, must examine the reduction or weight, increasing or decreasing it as may be necessary ; he shall declare the quantity and inches which the goods have in width in "varas," or any other measure or weight, always in *extenso*. In the clearances of goods for which the duties must be paid per square "vara," the officer (*feitor*) must reduce them to this measure, and declare the number of square varas they contain, as well as the duty to be paid for each addition.

ARTICLE XIII.—In order to ascertain the number of square varas, the officer (*feitor*) after having found the exact number of single varas, will multiply this by the number of inches in the width of the article, and divide product by forty. The quotient obtained by this operation will show the exact number of square varas. For example, twenty-five varas of calico, being twenty inches in width,

$$\begin{array}{r}
 25 \\
 20 \\
 \hline
 40)500(12\frac{1}{2} \\
 480 \\
 \hline
 120 \\
 \hline
 40=12\frac{1}{2}
 \end{array}$$

contains twelve and a half square varas.

In those articles which are not measured by the single vara, such as handkerchiefs and shawls, but upon which the valuation is imposed by the square vara, the officer (*feitor*) must take the length and width, and multiply one by the other ; and having obtained the number of square inches which each handkerchief or shawl contains, he must multiply it by the product of the length and width, and afterwards divide this product by 1,600, the quotient will give the number of square varas upon which the tax is to be calculated. For example, ten dozens of handkerchiefs, thirty inches square :

30
30
900
120
1.600)108,000(67½
96
120
112
8
16=½

The ten dozens, or 120 handkerchiefs, contain sixty-seven and a half square varas.

ARTICLE XIV.—When in the note for clearance any article shall be included which ought to pay *ad valorem* duties, the officer (*feitor*) after the quantity shall state how much per cent it ought to pay, and he shall enter in the column of imposts the value of the invoice, in order that the person who makes the calculation may, after deducting the duties, enter the amount in the column of imposts, making the following declaration at the end thereof: "I have examined the merchandise and entered the imposts (and awards for damage when there shall be any) or duties *ad valorem* according to the tariff. The person who makes the calculation must multiply the number of square varas, or any other measure, or weight by the imposts, enter their amount in the respective column, and sum up, and having also examined the reductions, shall enter the following declaration: "the additions and imposts or duties *ad valorem* agree, and it must pay for duties of importation and store rent *per extenso*." Underneath the sum of the duties he must enter the amount to be paid for store rent, making the following declaration: "subject to *store rent*." Another person must then examine the sums and calculations, and declare the sums and calculations agree, and must pay, namely,

Duties for consumption dollars

Store rent..... "

ARTICLE XV.—When any part of the goods submitted for clearance shall be damaged, two officers (*feitores*) named by the inspector, and in his presence shall proceed to make the examination, and declare the quantity damaged, and decide how much per cent shall be deducted from the impost on account of that damage. The officer (*feitor*) who makes the clearance, referring to this decision, marked with the initials of the inspector, shall declare the quantity damaged, and the deduction decided upon, and he shall enter the imposts in the respective column with the said deduction, for example;—

2400 square varas of coloured calico, impost in the tariff..... 8.400 reis.

88 ditto damaged, with twenty-five per cent deduction; impost awarded... 300 "

These declarations of award for damage shall be signed by the inspector, without which the "calculistas" shall not proceed with the clearance. Whenever deductions are made on account of damages, the first "calculista" shall declare on the margin of the clearance, the total amount of the said deductions to be taken from the duties, as in the case above referred to;—

Loss by award for damages at eight per cent..... 800 dollars.

ARTICLE XVI.—In the clearances of merchandise, the following points are to be observed:—

1. The value stated in the invoice shall include workmanship, precious stones and metals, and the whole shall be subject to seizure as well as other merchandise.
2. In the measurement of the goods, a quarter of an inch shall not be taken, but if it exceed that quantity it must be taken as half, and exceeding this latter, it must be considered as one inch.
3. In the notes for clearances, only the merchandise brought in one vessel shall be included; there must be as many notes as there may be vessels having merchandise to clear.

ARTICLE XVII.—The statistical returns, which must be drawn up in the custom-houses, shall declare the quantities cleared in square varas, or other measures, or Brazilian weights, for which purpose the officers (*feitores*) shall also declare in the clearances by invoice, the duties paid and the quantities deducted by award for damages.

ARTICLE XVIII.—Regarding the goods put up at auction for consumption in consequence of the length of time they may have been in the stores of the custom-house, beyond the time given by the regulations; and those sold before that time shall have expired because of their being generally damaged, verified by an examination made by the officers (*feitores*) according to the regulation now in force, the *ad valorem* duties shall be collected from the price obtained at the sale, if they should be so classed in the tariff; and when they are goods upon which the tariff imposes fixed taxes, thirty per cent shall always be collected upon the prices obtained at auction and not upon the fixed taxes.

ARTICLE XIX.—The stamp-duty established by the law of the 21st of October, 1843, shall be included in the imposts in the tariff.

ARTICLE XX.—The government is authorised to impose upon goods of any foreign nation which may put heavier duties upon Brazilian merchandise than upon that of a like nature of any other country, a differential duty, which may counteract the evil effect of the inequality, or oblige it to abolish that duty; but that differential duty shall cease immediately upon the cessation of the said inequality.

ARTICLE XXI.—A differential duty shall also be collected in the custom-houses of Brazil upon the merchandise of those nations which receive greater duties for consumption upon goods imported to their ports in Brazilian vessels, than upon those imported in their own ships, proceeding with them in the same manner, as with those mentioned in the foregoing Article.

ARTICLE XXII.—The duties or imposts in the present tariff shall not be increased within the financial year; but the government may order the payment in gold or silver, of the twentieth part of those which may be above six and less than fifty per cent of the prices of the merchandise, or even diminish them as may appear most requisite.

ARTICLE XXIII.—All laws contrary to the present are revoked.
Rio de Janeiro, August, 12, 1844.

(Signed)

MANOEL ALVES BRANCO.

IMPORTS into Rio de Janeiro.

COUNTRIES.	1830-1840	1842-1843	COUNTRIES.	1830-1840	1842-1843
	Value.	Value.		Value.	Value.
	milreis.	milreis.		milreis.	milreis.
Great Britain.....	15,092,553	13,697,638	Brought forward....	25,436,416	26,108,890
United States.....	1,799,686	4,028,471	Hanse Towns.....	1,596,316	1,430,875
France.....	4,314,362	3,985,972	Spain.....	765,413	618,249
Portugal.....	2,652,598	1,912,077	Brazilian Ports.....	680,115	1,062,205
Uruguay.....	1,577,217	1,552,640	Other places.....	982,437	2,045,460
Argentine Republic.. }		932,092			
Carried forward....	25,436,416	26,108,890	Total.....	29,460,697	31,265,679

NOTE.—The *rei* originally answered to the mill of our currency. *Milreis* signifies a thousand reis. The silver coin denominated milreis is nearly equivalent to a dollar. Gold and silver currency having now disappeared from Brazil, the paper milreis issued by the Bank of Brazil fluctuate in value according to the rates of exchange. The present value of the milreis is about fifty cents.

EXPORTS from Rio de Janeiro.

COUNTRIES.	1841-1842	1842-1843	COUNTRIES.	1841-1842	1842-1843
	Value.	Value.		Value.	Value.
	milreis.	milreis.		milreis.	milreis.
Great Britain.....	3,910,194	3,920,629	Brought forward....	18,238,483	17,897,771
United States.....	6,044,960	6,005,131	Austrian Ports.....	1,770,146	2,050,075
France.....	1,430,040	1,118,036	Denmark.....	567,621	544,290
Portugal.....	1,194,174	1,205,100	Sweden.....	797,502	469,097
Uruguay.....	1,011,035	655,242	Genoa.....	444,909	389,963
Argentine Republic....	453,893	704,206	Holland.....	188,055	34,923
Belgium.....	789,527	928,471	Uncertain.....	1,707,530	834,190
Hanse Towns.....	3,404,660	3,360,956			
Carried forward....	18,238,483	17,897,771	Total.....	23,714,246	22,220,309

PRODUCTS Exported from Rio de Janeiro.

YEARS.	COFFEE.	SUGARS.	HIDES.	RICE.	TAPIOCA.
	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.
	bags of 160 lbs.	cases.	number.	bags.	barrels.
1841.....	1,013,915	10,465	152,543	18,788	3082
1842.....	1,199,731	15,460	198,082	16,191	3893
1843.....	1,189,523	9,433	345,070	12,187	4685

NOTE.—Various other articles of commerce should be added to make this table complete.

ARTICLES Exported from Rio de Janeiro, during the Financial Year 1841-1842.

ARTICLES.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Value.
	milreis.		milreis.
Coffee.....	18,002,288	Brought forward....	22,517,473
Sugar.....	878,857	Sole Leather.....	71,473
Gold Dust.....	832,971	Beans.....	6,535
Hides, dry.....	824,283	Honey.....	6,250
" salted.....	92,069	Mats.....	6,116
Coin.....	660,316	Cotton.....	5,978
Tobacco.....	360,016	Rusk.....	4,232
Rum.....	220,682	Cacao.....	3,970
Rice.....	141,509	Snuff.....	3,485
Woods (precious).....	129,307	Carne Secca.....	3,192
Mandioc Flour.....	85,429	Pea-nuts.....	1,709
Sweetmeats.....	77,197	Potatoes.....	1,626
Tapioca.....	42,220	Arrow Root.....	1,625
Horns.....	26,044	Wool.....	1,306
Birds and Quadrupeds...	23,050	Cheese.....	1,137
Bacon.....	17,111	Soap.....	788
Biscuit.....	16,641	Glue.....	550
Ipecacuanha.....	13,355	Precious Stones.....	459
Corn.....	13,212	Hoofs.....	320
Gum.....	12,919	Powder.....	260
Cigars.....	12,630	Chocolate.....	125
Fire-wood.....	10,373	Tea.....	103
Wooden Shoes.....	9,383	Indigo.....	19
Wax.....	7,728	Sundries.....	48,119
Objects of Natural Hist...	7,883		
Carried forward....	22,517,473	Total.....	22,686,850

VESSELS employed in Exporting the above.

COUNTRIES.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	COUNTRIES.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.		number.	tons.
American.....	113	38,289	Brought forward....	365	116,886
British.....	114	32,353	Brazilian.....	49	9,051
Buenos Ayrean.....	3	341	Neapolitan.....	6	2,322
Austrian.....	14	5,756	Norwegian.....	2	378
Belgian.....	7	2,321	Oldenburg.....	1	247
Bremen.....	12	3,282	Montevidean.....	10	1,441
Chilian.....	1	397	Portuguese.....	37	10,721
Denmark.....	52	16,941	Prussian.....	4	1,272
Dutch.....	2	477	Russian.....	1	526
French.....	20	7,084	Sardinian.....	35	6,480
Hamburgese.....	26	9,285	Spanish.....	17	4,394
Lubec.....	1	360	Swedish.....	42	15,655
Carried forward.....	365	116,886	Total.....	569	169,573

BAGS of Coffee, 160 lbs. each, Exported from Rio de Janeiro.

COUNTRIES.	1841	1842	1843	COUNTRIES.	1841	1842	1843
	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.		Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.
	160lbs. each.	160lbs. each.	160lbs. each.		160lbs. each.	160lbs. each.	160lbs. each.
Antwerp.....	34,316	78,793	50,224	Brought forward..	468,817	633,577	514,891
Bremen.....	32,746	12,342	26,890	Portugal.....	12,964	43,643	14,014
Cape of Good Hope..	8,108	18,637	12,134	Spain.....	..	..	5,126
Channel.....	62,779	194,920	80,318	Sweden.....	26,514	31,324	21,461
Denmark.....	47,640	32,021	36,773	Trieste.....	62,202	111,607	73,501
France.....	56,318	27,203	20,797	United States.....	431,222	351,522	548,011
Hamburg.....	197,560	183,586	184,523	Venice.....	10,158	2,550	9,050
Holland.....	4,755	9,141	382	Other countries.....	1,988	5,008	3,439
Mediterranean.....	24,595	76,934	102,850				
Carried forward..	468,817	633,577	514,891	Total.....	1,013,865	1,179,231	1,189,523

CASES of Sugar Exported from Rio de Janeiro.

COUNTRIES.	1841	1842	1843	COUNTRIES.	1841	1842	1843
	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.		Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.
	cases.	cases.	cases.		cases.	cases.	cases.
Cape of Good Hope..	413	448	101	Brought forward..	7,920	11,749	6409
British Channel....	1317	1,904	821	Sweden.....	171	619	90
Hanse Towns.....	655	97	101½	Trieste.....	1,886	2,302	2203
Holland.....	..	..	363½	Valparaiso.....	..	179	439
Mediterranean.....	1183	1,669	408	Venice.....	428	319	..
Portugal.....	2384	2,637	1497	Other countries.....	60	471	292
River La Plata.....	1968	4,994	3117				
Carried forward..	7920	11,749	6409	Total.....	10,465	15,639	9433

HIDES Exported from Rio de Janeiro.

COUNTRIES.	1841	1842	1843	COUNTRIES.	1841	1842	1843
	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.		Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.
	number.	number.	number.		number.	number.	number.
Antwerp.....	900	5,075	17,220	Brought forward..	67,157	107,844	203,198
British Channel....	3,652	25,290	25,384	Portugal.....	64,759	55,511	92,049
Denmark.....	1,101	4,054	6,149	Spain	5,224	..	7,515
France.....	29,426	23,985	24,109	Sweden	4,543	14,761	8,800
Hanse Towns.....	9,767	11,817	32,034	Trieste.....	10,666	16,684	17,514
Holland.....	..	..	800	United States.....	199	3,282	15,925
Mediterranean.....	22,311	37,623	97,502	Other countries.....	..	..	69
Carried forward..	67,157	107,844	203,198	Total.....	152,548	198,082	345,070

Commerce between Brazil and the United States.—The commerce between Brazil and the United States consists chiefly in the exchange of useful productions, the consumption of which is constantly on the increase. This circumstance gives reason to expect that the commerce between the two countries will continue to expand in the future as it has done heretofore, in proportion to their mutual increase of population.

It will be seen from the following tables, that the importations from Brazil to the United States have increased in twenty-one years from the value of 605,126 dollars to 948,814 dollars per annum. During the same period the exports from the United States to Brazil have increased from 1,381,760 dollars to 2,601,502 dollars.

The principal articles of importation from Brazil to the United States, are coffee, sugar, and hides. The principal exports to Brazil are flour and cotton manufactures. Numerous other articles are constantly exchanged between the two countries for their mutual convenience and benefit, but not in great quantities.

Brazil has already become one of the greatest coffee growing countries of the world. It supplies the United States with more than half of their annual importations of that article. Nearly all the commerce between the two nations is done by vessels belonging to the United States. The aggregate tonnage employed in 1841-42 in conveying exports to Brazil, was 38,778. That employed in making importations, was 37,058.

COMMERCIAL Arrivals and Departures, Coastwise and Foreign, during the Year 1845, compared with those in the Four preceding Years.

YEARS.	COASTWISE.				FOREIGN PORTS.			
	ARRIVALS.		DEPARTURES.		ARRIVALS.		DEPARTURES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
Total 1845....	2373	168,872	2382	172,136	878	201,266	881	274,955
„ 1844....	2438	169,316	2434	170,356	753	170,869	799	240,895
„ 1843....	2259	152,611	2282	156,951	854	192,303	849	255,883
„ 1842....	2029	146,837	2015	153,081	803	183,606	775	241,769
„ 1841....	1815	123,094	1929	139,501	915	206,160	867	270,651
Average.....	2183	152,146	2208	158,405	841	191,441	834	256,831

COMPARATIVE Export of Produce during the Years 1841, 1842, 1843, 1844, and 1845, showing the Increase or Diminution in 1845, upon the Average of Five Years.

YEARS.	CLEARED OUT-WARDS.		Coffee.	Sugar.	Hides.	Horns.	Tanned half Hides.	Rice.	Rum.	Rose-wood.	Ipeca-cuanha.	To-bacco.	Ta-pioca.
	Vessels.	Tons.											
	No.	No.	bags.	cases.	No.	No.	No.	bags.	pipes.	dozen.	lbs.	rolls,&c.	brls.
1845.....	584	174,320	1,208,062	14,539	215,689	308,646	18,399	27,274	4725	2182	27,681	15,003	7454
1844.....	571	167,018	1,260,431	11,513	369,183	541,436	15,506	14,976	3804	938	4,365	21,676	6123
1843.....	590	171,207	1,189,523	9,433	345,070	515,051	22,335	12,187	3206	1701	..	18,161	4685
1842.....	569	169,575	1,179,731	15,460	198,082	382,283	39,928	16,191	3451	1230½	19,113	31,270	3898
1841.....	520	148,893	1,013,915	10,465	152,541	310,853	22,100	18,788	2176	1202½	17,607	28,078	3088
Average....	567	166,203	1,170,332	12,282	256,114	411,648	23,654	17,883	3472	1451	13,753	22,837	5049
Increase in 1845.....	17	8,117	37,730	2,257	..	..	..	9,391	1253	731	13,928	..	2405
Decrease in 1845.....	..	..	..	..	40,425	103,032	5,255	..	..	..	..	7,834	..

COMPARATIVE Importation into the Port of Rio Janeiro, from Foreign Countries, of principal Articles in 1843, 1844, and 1845, and the respective Quantities received from each Country in 1845.

ARTICLES.	1843	1844	1845	Great Britain.	Belgium and Holland.	France.	Hanse Towns.	Portugal.	River Plate.	Russia.	Sardinia and Sicily.	Spain.	Sweden.	United States.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Ale and porter.....casks	31,691	19,148	24,294	21,993	26	..	105	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Brandy and spirit.....pipes	455	590	293	50	..	9	20	1	..	..	..	178	2,175	..
Butter.....firkins	24,420	25,962	19,573	15,783	..	3,763	..	..	..	27	..	..	..	..
Candles :—														
— composition and sperm boxes	5,630	3,168	7,874	820	3	190	362	..	120	..	48	..	..	6,230
— tallow.....do.	7,048	7,337	9,371	31	..	..	..	4,340	3,121	1,000	272	..	..	100
Cheese.....do.	3,775	4,958	3,545	1,157	441	226	1,403	80	..	..	..	40	..	..
Coals.....tons	15,814	12,770	17,277	15,685	466	20	1,020	..	..	10	..	..	..	75
Codfish.....quintals	21,332	27,600	31,572	27,823	..	2,451	..	17	..	..	..	28	..	1,203
Copper.....tons	225	352	302	302	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cordage :—														
— coir.....coils	5,316	2,553	4,228	3,669	..	..	..	559	..	..	..	..	..	..
— manilla.....do.	570	1,776	1,048	39	..	..	..	10	..	..	..	..	..	999
— patent.....do.	..	..	825	741	62	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	22
— Russian.....do.	6,355	5,124	5,543	490	..	..	1,680	100	..	3,104	..	..	..	169
Deals.....dozen	5,831	7,603	14,196	..	14	..	1,227	279	..	813	..	..	11,694	72
Flour.....barrels	214,940	173,995	184,322	226	1,880	2,469	150	..	13	..	2	1,000	..	165,791
Gin.....pipes	35	184	17	..	..	..	17	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
— dozen jugs	11,711	14,740	5,318	..	1,736	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
— demijohns	3,547	23,142	6,717	..	715	..	3,582	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
— cases	195	1,960	2,087	..	1,262	..	6,002	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hams.....casks	944	604	331	5	..	..	16	285	..	..	..	..	..	25
— loose	12,093	7,443	5,358	51	..	550	3,724	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,033
Hardware, &c.....packages	6,212	7,970	5,811	3,840	579	215	260	842	14	..	2	..	..	39
Hats.....do.	890	763	850	29	..	526	5	84	..	..	42	14	..	48
Iron.....tons	1,868	664	2,452	2,452	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
— bars and bds.	19,323	60,445	33,067	69	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	32,998	..
— hoop.....tons	84	62	175	175	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60
— bundles	3,930	452	24	24	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lead.....bars	13,144	5,073	9,709	1,020	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8,629	..	..
— sheet.....rolls	343	358	248	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	248	..	..
Leather :—														
— curried.....packages	1,033	1,595	885	186	14	362	97	217	..	..	..	3	..	..
— wrought.....do.	1,465	1,441	1,318	249	10	418	14	109	11	..	32	74	..	..
Linseed oil.....pipes	491	580	413	331	44	9	9	..	..	..	14	3	..	3
Manufactures :—														
— cotton.....packages	23,603	25,773	31,160	20,000	189	1,527	402	11	123	..	31	2	..	8,831
— linen.....do.	1,672	1,498	2,263	1,992	4	81	52	97	..	..	1	..	..	33
— linen and cotton.....do.	119	123	183	131	..	36	16	..	..	..	60	53	..	104
— silk.....do.	1,209	1,367	1,312	297	31	582	121	4	52	..	1	..	..	8
— silk and cotton.....do.	137	158	180	15	9	106	41	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
— silk and worsted.....do.	72	113	169	36	5	120	4	2	66	..	..	7	..	4
— woollen.....do.	3,911	4,209	3,888	3,161	75	488	85	..	..	..	..	..	..	10
— woollen and cotton.....do.	275	438	666	358	85	157	49	..	7	..	..	..	..	720
Mess beef and pork.....brls.	1,613	2,074	1,642	384	..	..	165	..	373	..	..	..	..	..

Comparative Importation—(continued.)

ARTICLES.	1843	1844	1845	Great Britain.	Belgium and Holland.	France.	Hanse Towns.	Portugal.	River Plate.	Russia.	Sardinia and Sicily.	Spain.	Sweden.	United States.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Nails.....packages	7,237	7,359	5,141	2,426	1,980	..	..	134	..	..	..	..	3	434
Olive oil.....pipes	2,770	766	1,563	78	..	7	..	722	..	..	298	330	..	..
Paints and colours.....packages	6,554	9,178	5,963	5,866	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,987	498	..	..
Paper.....do.	17,706	5,270	5,586	195	384	995	266	7	..	..	50	5	..	..
Pepper.....bags	1,631	700	1,233	1,153	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pitch.....barrels	459	1,779	2,406	600	26	..	468	..	..	141	..	..	213	960
Raisins.....boxes	33,230	7,940	18,664	2,315	..	..	..	2,739	..	1,200	..	13,610	..	860
Ravensduck.....ps.	5,482	3,007	5,724	2,162	..	..	1,142	..	..	2,127	..	..	..	5,885
Rosin.....brls.	6,059	12,026	6,022	126	..	..	..	..	..	..	86	..	..	692
Sailcloth.....packages	6,159	10,457	9,011	4,759	..	..	1,325	20	..	..	31,650	362,382	..	100
Salt.....alqs.	571,220	543,955	804,959	23,500	..	4,500	..	373,927	6,700	..	..	..	..	206
Saltpetre.....kegs, &c.	3,964	2,930	7,894	5,966	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Shot.....kegs	3,758	5,333	3,431	1,721	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	1,708	..	..
Soap.....boxes	54,205	30,063	9,748	7,058	..	100	520	..	..	..	158	1,645	..	..
Steel.....boxes, &c.	839	1,970	5,024	529	..	148	222	50	..	358	155	..	1,502	..
Tar.....brls.	3,025	1,392	2,420	500	26	..	1,272	..	10	..	..	..	254	3,963
Tea (chests & boxes).packages	5,295	3,761	4,817	728	..	..	2	116	..	..	..	..	..	315
Tin plates.....boxes	6,476	2,062	2,467	2,367	..	..	100	..	..	..	1	..	..	112
Tobacco.....packages	710	1,094	504	62	3	..	..	120	2	..	..	..	..	50
Tarrentine.....barrels	479	75	112	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vermicelli.....boxes	14,190	8,480	19,964	295	..	24	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vinegar.....pipes	1,066	873	1,159	..	..	26	29	1,095	..	..	..	896	..	..
Wheat.....alqs.	20,110	5,340	514	514	..	..	..	..	..	..	18,546	5	..	..
White lead.....packages	1,444	1,494	1,429	567	50	85	428	55	..	..	..	..	..	158
Window glass.....boxes	3,563	4,416	5,372	..	5,362	6	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Wine:—														
— Portugal.....pipes	9,975	10,187	10,996	3	10,960	1,526	..	..	..	..	1,189	7,000	..	..
— Mediterranean, &c.....do.	15,826	10,033	9,756	20	5	3,692	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
— Bordeaux.....hogsheads	3,776	2,108	3,692	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

NOTE.—There were imported from Austria 600 boxes of candles, 102 dozen deals, 12,271 barrels of flour, 3 bales of manufactured cotton, 126 pipes of olive oil, 254 packages of paper, 25 bags of pepper, 61 boxes of soap, and 2416 boxes of steel.

NUMBER of Vessels and Tonnage of each Nation—continued.

C O U N T R I E S A N D P O R T S.	T O T A L.		Coffee.	Sugar.	Hides.	Horns.	Tanned Half Hides.	Rice.	Rum.	Rose- wood.	Tobacco.	Ipeca- cuanha.	Tapioca.
	ves.	tons.	bags.	cases.				bags.	pipes.	dozen.	rolls, &c.	lbs.	barrels.
P O R T U G A L A N D H E R D E P E N D E N C I E S.													
Africa. In 14 American, 4484; 2 French, 463; 1 Hamburg, 190; 25 Natolia, 3819; 3 Portugal, 685; 4 Sardinian, 721.....	49	10,362	70	169	..	..	80	1,872	3,649	..	1,240	..	6
Azores. In 2 Natolia, 421; 3 Portugal, 567..	5	991	160	46	..	..	236	255	4	2	..	..	..
Lisbon. In 2 Natolia, 1154; 18 Portugal, 5241.....	20	6,305	17,020	2,858	4,412	..	..	4,543	..	384	..	..	82
Oporto. In 1 Natolia, 148; 14 Portugal, 4245.....	15	4,393	2,230	1,329	40,178	3,300	150	8,754	..	644	..	..	23
P R U S S I A.													
Stettin. In 1 British, 390; 1 Sweden, 375...	2	765	8,019	78	772	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	32
R I V E R P L A T E.													
In 4 British, 1115; 2 American, 539; 1 Danish, 224; 1 French, 306; 1 Hamburg, 214; 17 Natolia, 3092; 4 Portugal, 847; 13 Sardinian, 1959; 6 Spanish, 1392.....	49	9,528	1,426	1,571	..	..	3,101	9,616	1,032	..	13,763	..	18
R U S S I A.													
Abo. In 1 Russian.....	1	307	2,998	..	..	..	..	42	..	..	..	..	..
Helsingfors. In 2 Russian.....	2	634	6,737	..	100	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Norrköping. In 1 Sweden.....	1	183	1,928	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Wyburg. In 1 Russian (part cargo).....	1	180	1,600	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
S A R D I N I A N S T A T E S.													
Genoa. In 2 British 509; 1 Belgium, 246; 1 French, 225; 5 Sardinian, 1012.....	9	1,992	6,782	822	2,877	14,431	1,500	..	..	8	..	..	..
S I C I L Y.													
Naples. In 3 Neapolitan.....	3	889	1,019	5	2,738	..	..	..	..	16	..	..	..
Palermo. In 1 Neapolitan.....	1	465	285	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
S W E D E N.													
Gothenburg. In 1 Danish, 171; 4 Sweden, 1094.....	5	1,265	12,611	..	3,909	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8
Stockholm. In 6 Sweden.....	6	1,703	16,044	113	5,881	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24
U N I T E D S T A T E S.													
Baltimore. In 39 American, 11,237; 1 Sweden, 494.....	40	11,731	117,896	..	230	..	..	..	..	464	..	3,130	153
Boston. In 15 American.....	15	5,253	46,957	..	42,752	..	..	..	..	55	..	336	21
Charleston. In 1 American.....	1	247	2,064	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mobile. In 2 American.....	2	737	8,005	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
New Orleans. In 33 American, 15,542; 2 Sweden, 771.....	35	16,313	167,720	..	94	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
New York. In 51 American, 15,508; 1 Bremen, 408; 1 Danish, 339; 4 Sweden, 1465..	57	17,720	172,799	7	16,610	..	..	..	..	233	..	6,750	631
Philadelphia. In 15 American.....	15	3,767	3,294	..	..	..	..	..	..	20	..	1,290	..
T U R K E Y.													
Constantinople. In 1 British, 273; 2 Austrian, 866.....	3	1,139	9,934	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
T o t a l	584	174,320	1,208,062	14,539	215,689	308,616	18,399	27,274	4,725	2,182	15,003	27,681	7,544

T O T A L.—In 88 British vessels of 23,896 tons; 174 American, 58,168 tons; 17 Austrian, 5829 tons; 15 Belgium, 5015 tons; 13 Bremen, 3631 tons; 40 Danish, 11,831 tons; 1 Dutch, 353 tons; 26 French, 9421 tons; 24 Hamburg, 7771 tons; 1 Hanoverian, 195 tons; 47 Natolia, 8637 tons; 7 Neapolitan, 2313 tons; 3 Norway, 799 tons; 3 Oldenburg, 620 tons; 42 Portugal, 11,585 tons; 3 Prussian, 1266 tons; 4 Russian, 1311 tons; 26 Sardinian, 4679 tons; 7 Spanish, 1627 tons; 43 Swedish, 15,373 tons.

DEMONSTRATIVE Table of the Value of the Export of Produce to Foreign Countries from the exporting Provinces of Brazil during the Year 1842—1843.

Exporting Province.	Whence to.	Value of Produce.	TOTAL.	Exporting Province.	Whence to	Value of Produce.	TOTAL.		
	country.	rials. mar.	rials. mar.		country.	rials. mar.	rials. mar.		
Rio de Janeiro.	Austrian dominions.....	2,450,055 130	22,220,309 119 2,066 742	Brought forward.....	Spain.....	98,228 121	29,253,115 970		
	Belgium.....	928,471 760			Portugal.....	611,213 894			
	Hanseatic cities.....	3,360,956 580			Holland.....	170,362 898			
	Denmark.....	144,310 430			Ports of Pacific..	29,116 125			
	United States...	5,997,275 290			Sweden.....	237,142 17			
	France.....	1,118,036 080		Pernam- buco(<i>con- tinued.</i>)..	Sardinia.....	381,295 785	6,138,489 852		
	Great Britain...	3,927,406 540							
	Spain.....	75,505 100							
	Italy.....	777,957 780							
	Ionian Islands..	13,663 430		Parahiba {	Hanseatic Towns	21,868 870	765,312 422		
	Portugal.....	1,205,100 220			United States...	23,704 352			
	Holland.....	34,923 700			Great Britain ..	684,958 328			
	Ports of Pacific..	62,053 570			Portugal.....	34,780 872			
	Argentine States	704,206 780		Ceara....	Hanseatic Towns	27 200	222,925 599		
	Russia.....	30,640 310			United States...	4,032 0			
	Sweden.....	469,097 060			Great Britain...	185,969 628			
	Turkey.....	227,329 930			Portugal.....	10,024 771			
	For consumption of vessels.....	37,468 910			Country not de- clared.....	22,872 0			
	Fisheries.....	608 140				Maran- ham...	Hanseatic Towns	2,982 475	1,789,316 149
Uruguay State..	655,242 370			United States...	37,750 689				
Espirito Santo...	Uruguay State..		6,215,735 939	St. Ca- therine's.	France.....		11,987 912	87,840 952	
	Austrian domi- nions.....	893,876 925			Spain.....		121,215 331		
	Hanseatic Towns	899,816 633			Portugal.....	338,517 779			
	China.....	17,957 239			Holland.....	14,752 718			
	British Channel	433,445 103			Great Britain...	1,262,109 245			
	Denmark.....	103,373 730		Para....	United States...	61,281 662	820,218 385		
	United States...	2,688 0			Argentine States	9,202 890			
	Argentine States	24,041 340			Uruguay.....	27,356 400			
	Uruguay.....	53,862 57			Belgium.....	11,114 660			
	France.....	342,516 157			Hanseatic Towns	12,880 180			
Bahia....	Great Britain...	2,101,025 922	196,681 640	St. Paulo.	United States...	279,045 623	377,959 147		
	Spain.....	2,076 299			France.....	148,482 234			
	Italy.....	300,177 595			Great Britain...	112,918 90			
	Portugal.....	567,623 251			Spain.....	9,209 600			
	Holland.....	11,825 775			Portugal.....	246,567 998			
	Ports of Pacific.	5,223 190		* Rio Grande do Sul.	United States...	290 115	1,214,480 318		
	Russia.....	36,928 300			Argentine States	293,281 168			
	Sweden.....	449,258 342			Uruguay.....	31,554 850			
	Austrian domi- nions.....	60,378 485			France.....	169 120			
	British Channel	72,399 571			Great Britain...	1,776 730			
Alagoas..	Great Britain...	10,890 442	618,322 530	Total	Portugal.....	2,231 712	40,669,658 412		
	Sweden.....	53,013 142			Ports of Pacific.	48,655 452			
	Hanseatic Towns	27,655 757			Austrian do- minions.....	69,505 540			
Pernam- buco...	Great Britain...	571,112 725	29,253,115 970		Total	Hanseatic Towns		110,435 400	Total
	Portugal.....	19,554 48				United States...		234,380 795	
	Austrian domi- nions.....	983,161 613				Uruguay.....		26,145 595	
	Hanseatic Towns	287,048 366				France.....		125,200 260	
	United States...	203,060 288				Great Britain...		306,100 956	
Carried forward.....	Argentine States	157,176 163	29,253,115 970		Total	Portugal.....		49,231 715	Total
	France.....	719,699 300				Holland.....		5,637 322	
	Great Britain...	2,260,985 282				Denmark.....		69,505 540	
						Countries not declared.....		228,336 195	
Total			29,253,115 970	Total			40,669,658 412		

* The exports from Rio Grande were necessarily small, owing to the civil war in that province, and the greater part of the country in possession of the rebels; but in 1845 Rio Grande exported upwards of 1,000,000 of hides.

N.B. In the above official exposition, no mention is made of the value of the Exports to the *Coast of Africa*, but the amount is very considerable.

The value of the Gold Dust and Diamonds yearly exported by contraband, amounts, upon an average, to—Gold Dust, 1,000,000 rials, (or, 100,000*l.*); Diamonds, 5,000,000 rials, (or, 500,000*l.*).

Rio de Janeiro, August, 1846.

DEMONSTRATIVE Table of the Value of Foreign Merchandise Imported and Entered for Consumption in the Custom-houses of Brazil, during the Years 1842 and 1843.

WHENCE FROM.	Rio de Janeiro.	Bahia.	Pernambuco.	Maranhão.	Pará.	Rio Grande do Sul.*	St. Paulo.	Ceará.	St. Catharine's.	Parahiba.	Alagoas.	Sergipe.	Espirito Santo.	GRAND TOTAL.
	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	rials. mrs.	ri. mr.	ri. mr.	rials. mrs.
Great Britain...	13,798,438 505	5,009,497 000	3,651,926 532	1,382,323 968	74,690 399	382,456 525	920 171	209,717 695	10,466 400	...	6,842 542	...	...	24,527,279 737
France.....	3,985,972 779	875,340 550	824,982 554	155,103 432	159,182 867	83,838 300	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,084,420 482
Portugal.....	1,912,077 482	682,744 547	711,956 379	340,501 274	253,477 577	81,011 792	47,917 413	17,097 160	...	2192 621	6,810 306	1364 580	...	4,057,151 131
Spain	618,249 359	35,470 614	88,842 786	102,911 696	12,334 491	2,148 519	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	859,957 465
Hanseatic Towns	1,430,875 557	433,272 443	304,858 483	48,958 379	53,362 559	184,086 843	30,048 185	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,485,462 449
United States...	4,028,471 258	241,115 699	753,446 950	184,134 824	344,216 246	310,678 477	26,150 356	31,102 767	60,524 778	...	...	...	...	5,953,690 999
Italy.....	487,624 079	155,290 970	114,519 136	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	783,584 541
Austrian dominions.....	40,479 272	146,303 067	114,520 096	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	301,302 435
Holland.....	22,071 497	19,279 254	9,536 530	14,390 073	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	65,277 354
Ports of the Baltic.....	185,284 109	49,410 132	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	234,694 241
States of River Plate.....	2,484,733 070	408,732 077	223,460 835	...	...	117,955 846	103,890 671	...	63,813 926	...	...	...	...	3,402,588 425
Sweden & Norway.....	...	...	6,280 590	...	2,633 076	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,280 590
Belgium.....	640,155 173	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	642,788 249
Ports of the Pacific.....	436,428 849	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	436,428 849
Russia.....	7,594 500	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7,594 500
East Indies.....	17,017 740	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17,017 740
Fisheries.....	203,513 756	44,581 882	...	...	...	...	...	...	17,211 479	...	...	...	...	265,307 117
Ports of the Empire.....	155,742 490	37,709 218	...	5,609 189	5,582 103	45,107 969	8,587 290	2,098 500	1,032 009	3160 120	...	...	850 965	266,079 858
Proceeds of seizures.....	5,233 219	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,233 219
Total.....	30,459,962 694	8,138,747 453	6,804,330 871	2,233,932 835	905,479 318	1,207,284 271	217,514 086	260,616 122	153,048 592	5352 741	13,652 848	1364 580	850 965	50,402,139 381
Goods not classified:—														
Surplus of ships' provisions.....	57,015 322	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57,015 322
Surplus of ships' provisions, free	...	...	31,330 000	9,888 796	...	...	5,316 254	...	...	...	6,443 484	...	...	52,978 534
Gold and silver coin.....	...	56,187 263	22,462 800	...	...	...	39,643 280	...	...	...	8,580 000	...	...	126,873 342
Total.....	30,516,978 016	8,194,934 716	6,858,123 671	2,243,821 631	905,479 318	1,207,284 271	262,473 620	260,616 122	153,048 592	5352 741	28,676 332	1364 580	850 965	50,639,006 579

* Rio Grande do Sul was in rebellion during the years 1835—1845; but since the middle of the year 1844, foreign trade has increased so rapidly in that province, that during the financial year ending the 30th of June, 1845, the amount of foreign imports entered for consumption at the Rio Grande custom-house alone (and exclusive of that of Porto Alegre, was 6,464,000 rials.—Rio de Janeiro, August, 1846.

OFFICIAL Account of the External and Internal Funded Debt of Brazil.

Year ending 30th of June.	EXTERNAL.	Nominal Capital in Sterling.	INTERNAL.	Brazilian Cur- rency.
		£		rials.
1836	Brazilian loans in London 5 per cent.....	5,705,400	Inscribed 4, 5, and 6 per cent.....	18,629,201
1837	Do. do. do.....	5,655,000	Do. do. do.....	22,503,667
1838	Do. do. do.....	5,605,000	Do. do. do.....	23,300,600
1839	Do. do. do.....	5,555,000	Do. do. do.....	28,973,600
1840	Do. do. do.....	5,916,000	Do. do. do.....	26,575,200
1841	Do. do. do.....	5,866,600	Do. do. do.....	34,409,400
1842	Do. do. do.....	5,816,600	Do. do. do.....	40,821,200
1843	Do. do. do.....	5,580,400	Do. do. do.....	43,285,400
1844	Do. do. do.....	6,999,200	Do. do. do.....	48,221,600
1845	Do. do. do.....	6,999,200	Do. do. do.....	45,521,600
1846	Do. do. do.....	6,999,200	Do. do. do.....	48,035,200
Paper money in circulation in the empire for which government is responsible..... 48,030,853 rials.				

RIO DE JANEIRO, 15th of August, 1846.

COMPARATIVE Table of the Revenue of Brazil from the Year 1847 to 1848, as compared with the Revenue actually received in the Three Financial Years undermentioned.

GENERAL REVENUE.	ACTUALLY RECEIVED IN			Calculated for 1847 and 1848.
	1841—42	1842—43	1843—44	
	rials.	rials.	rials.	rials.
Imports.....	10,088,410	8,684,928	10,459,319	13,254,000
Maritime despatch, anchorage dues, &c. &c....	564,279	567,641	745,719	620,000
Exports.....	2,811,523	2,852,282	3,021,425	3,096,000
Internal imposts.....	1,846,116	1,857,020	2,412,935	2,449,550
Special imposts levied in Rio Janeiro.....	546,019	640,896	720,670	820,000
Extraordinary internal imposts.....	436,924	849,027	859,342	400,000
	16,293,264	15,451,794	18,219,410	20,639,550
Imposts as guarantee for six months' dividend on external debt*.....	556,346	492,260	536,368	927,429
Imposts for the amortisation of the paper currency of the country.....	2,037,266	2,725,974	2,145,533	3,233,021
	18,886,876	18,760,028	20,901,311	24,800,000

* These special amounts, proceeds of a certain per centage laid on the import and export trade of the country for the purposes above-mentioned, have not been applied for some years to the purposes they are destined. No amortisation of the paper currency has taken place since 1839.

RIO DE JANEIRO, 15th of August, 1846.

OFFICIAL Statement of the Receipts and Expenditure of the Empire of Brazil in the Financial Years undermentioned, showing the Division of her Expenses amongst the different Departments of State, and the yearly calculated Deficits in the Revenue, &c.

Financial Years.	Receipts calculated.	Expenditure calculated.	Calculated Deficit	Surplus.	Department of Empire.
	rials mar.	rials mar.	rials mar.	rials mar.	rials mar.
1836—37....	13,024,749 0	13,501,574 571	476,825 571		1,625,459 360
1837—38....	12,265,262 0	13,150,371 851	885,109 853		1,536,178 0
1838—39....	13,663,289 0	13,622,697 0		40,591 677	1,527,072 0
1839—40....	14,196,229 0	15,230,175 92	1,033,946 92		1,567,538 0
1840—41....	14,000,000 0	17,639,603 432	3,639,603 432		1,829,683 0
1841—42....	14,352,000 0	20,564,609 934	6,212,609 934		2,219,854 120
1842—43....	15,200,000 0	20,924,843 0	5,724,843 0		2,594,719 800
1843—44....	16,500,000 0	23,120,866 783	6,620,866 0		3,182,964 0
1844—45....	16,836,000 0	26,320,520 441	9,484,520 441		2,860,263 0
1845—46....	26,000,000 0	26,662,231 576	662,231 576		2,840,517 0
1846—47....	24,000,000 0	27,330,229 785	3,330,229 785		2,939,556 0
1847—48 ...	24,800,000 0	27,279,897 914	2,479,897 914		3,005,734 0
Total.....			40,550,683 598	40,591 677	

Financial Years.	Department of Justice.	Department of War.	Department of Finance.	Department of Marine.	Department of Foreign Affairs.
	rials mar.	rials mar.	rials mar.	rials mar.	rials mar.
1836—37....	672,633 220	2,695,203 753	3,755,685 50	915,348 360	153,348 800
1837—38....	762,239 788	3,156,097 583	5,632,304 264	1,935,803 418	127,648 800
1838—39....	809,946 387	3,113,223 580	5,877,985 50	2,131,030 386	163,436 920
1839—40....	859,737 654	3,586,615 340	6,390,125 816	2,663,023 482	163,134 800
1840—41....	1,036,221 29	5,013,935 629	6,796,934 21	2,705,483 753	267,346 0
1841—42....	1,065,524 163	6,407,015 62	7,769,054 456	2,679,294 833	423,867 300
1842—43....	1,132,414 588	5,306,481 372	8,823,585 174	2,597,317 66	470,325 0
1843—44....	1,598,348 441	5,891,869 830	9,180,119 571	2,732,500 144	535,064 800
1844—45....	1,474,796 175	8,702,928 411	9,729,286 778	3,098,536 77	454,710 0
1845—46....	1,699,104 679	9,098,488 30	9,367,911 452	3,037,212 415	579,398 0
1846—47....	1,642,427 928	6,474,756 200	12,219,351 748	3,485,667 909	569,090 0
1847—48....	1,660,955 731	6,170,707 583	12,416,732 297	3,434,598 303	591,170 0

SPECIFICATION of the Value of each Article of Merchandise Imported from Foreign Countries into Brazil, and Entered for Consumption at the several Custom Houses of the Empire during the financial Year of 1842—43, and according to the Classification existing at the Imperial Treasury.

VOL. I.

NAME & CLASSIFICATION OF MERCHANDISE.	C O U N T R I E S F R O M W H E N C E I M P O R T E D.							
	Great Britain.	France.	Portugal.	Spain.	Hanseatic Towns.	United States.	Italy.	Austrian Dominions.
Cotton manufactures.....	rials m. 11,406,750 482	rials m. 1,193,092 418	rials m. 90,771 548	rials m. 3,014 861	rials m. 439,459 47	rials m. 2,218,575 931	rials m. 10,444 216	rials m. 765 259
Woollen do.	3,257,402 558	341,972 724	12,568 413	1,823 451	96,635 604	4,141 186	248 780	16 0
Linen do.	1,312,031 285	48,229 273	128,547 752	154 867	162,509 929	23,094 458	10,821 622	3 0
Silk do.	184,095 269	500,744 12	73,239 299	58,767 153	112,417 49	5,469 660	10,998 669	
Mixed species, do.	900,296 654	268,007 229	4,845 512	147 0	46,769 761	6,266 934	1,604 32	
Velvets and velveteens	388 521	51,573 805	110 200		9,922 890		7,519 959	
Brandy, liquors, and spirits ..	23,179 220	65,798 404	7,538 622	31,086 593	70,100 589	21,277 780	28,243 836	926 194
Ale and porter	385,265 614	917 99	659 953	4 500	5,364 649	775 929		
Wines	30,628 786	674,349 264	1,160,006 469	372,150 121	17,514 280	4,089 228	135,975 304	532 135
Vinegar.....	609 118	11,932 203	102,040 354	6,551 120	5,240 940	1,999 26	591 581	
Butter	620,297 274	293,618 756	17,040 617		24,626 481			
Cheese.....	65,515 946	20,507 279	5,719 20	841 480	63,227 973	8,105 673	1,374 261	134 359
Tar, pitch, and resin	16,861 738	418 860	570 232	23 854	16,329 654	32,456 590	23 179	222 440
Live cattle	18,101 70	1,605 150	15,015 680	110 575	5,512 790	782 560	20 0	
Arms	147,894 661	32,982 330	6,594 550	61 775	34,606 500		30 0	350 0
Wax, and oil-cloths & carpets	29,577 839	2,095 150	47 860		6,214 936	1,819 685		
Onions and garlic	1,647 240	119 131	67,766 801	4,138 604	463 440		3,776 454	780 675
Olive oil.....	82,151 719	37,470 362	314,248 946	112,385 574	13 181	5,843 266	54,212 335	34,230 341
Oil fisheries								
— linseed	49,475 470	822 659	370 733	98 927	3,978 66	1,479 351	104 97	4 234
— of other qualities	1,865 815	3,885 338	91,642 140		4,388 470	13,441 210	855 504	
Codfish and others, dry and								
salted.....	686,596 354	2,014 767	15,586 668	364 750	889 495	19,195 321	68 145	5 670
Trays of iron and of China								
paper.....	7,787 610	53 649			753 900	9 180		
Bacon	36 93	5 200	309 420			16,351 825		
Barilla	19,453 465		16 380	5,906 250		524 277	8,200 0	
Potatoes	24,809 612	17,583 87	7,691 78	710 918	4,867 186	1,835 491	63 0	245 470
False jewellery.....		8,151 580			4,376 800			
Bonnets and caps, ready made	487 200	4,406 950	67 410		20 0			
Hats, different qualities	51,707 575	125,635 2	94,108 534	470 800	30,563 782	13,726 814	2,186 500	
Boots and shoes.....	129,870 907	329,063 540	60,530 942	594 720	10,833 417	685 855	3,166 800	
Limestone.....			1,212 474		1,000 0	...	1 50	
Salt beef and pork, hung and								
dried	24,965 110	3,595 110	126,212 718	984 0	24,259 499	59,092 897	1,420 522	39 300
Jerk beef and dried tongues				222 0				
Carriages, gigs, &c.	23,380 660	8,604 250	1,207 500		3,410 20	2,453 0	157 500	160 0
Playing cards.....		3,463 300			2,899 400			
Coals.....	708,722 540	5,037 237	803 932		134,653 458	6,880 677		
Wax, and do. manufactured..	1,294 673	2,273 655	119,248 54	1,925 910	241 920	485 100	40 0	
Umbrellas, silk and cotton....	38,068 800	57,781 395			5,116 880	95 655	2,892 750	
Cigars and tobacco in leaf....	54,373 510	1,429 900	315 850	11,457 122	19,642 12	93,864 550	668 665	84 0
Horns, ox								
Lead, pig, sheet, &c.	110,766 144	7,458 827	568 548	21,530 42	1,364 542	14,823 130	27 216	71 816
Copper, sheathing, &c., &c....	269,953 391	254 284	6,697 567		29 604	1,802 954		(continued.)

NAME & CLASSIFICATION OF MERCHANDISE.	COUNTRIES FROM WHENCE IMPORTED.							Total Value declared for Consumption.
	Holland.	Ports of Baltic.	States of River Plate.	Belgium.	Ports of Pacific.	Ports of Empire.	East Indies and China.	
	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	
Cotton Manufactures.....		210 0	39,541 204	63,463 13	6,789 405	17,273 300	2,721 600	15,492,872 284
Woollen do.....	731 430		10,253 618	27,506 607		4,805 43		3,758,089 414
Linen do.....	3,410 0	886 200	4,232 473	11,306 376		2,344 294		1,707,385 329
Silk do.....		105 0	5,675 904	13,337 428		9,023 891		973,876 334
Mixed species do.....			721 900	50,952 66		355 600		1,270,066 688
Velvets and velveteens.....		994 560		2,528 400				73,038 335
Brandy, liquors, and spirits...	1,771 868	187 684	802 507	540 653	4 114	224 522		251,682 586
Ale and porter.....				134 343		63 0		393,185 87
Wines.....	343 324	16,650 75	1,119 96	2,098 134	64 484	4,560 58		2,420,080 758
Vinegar.....			413 315	104 989		240 371		129,723 23
Butter.....	2,178 520	185 640	3 360	2,289 362		302 480		980,497 959
Cheese.....	15,233 807	2,237 713	14 267	7,060 249		201 70		191,073 97
Far, pitch, and resin.....	627 382	8,591 843	28 529	128 625		1,235 576		77,518 502
Live Cattle.....		26 400	474 800	1,173 0		27 636		42,849 661
Arms.....	9,075 0		124 0	90,824 512	25 200	4,430 669		330,431 747
Wax, and oil cloths & carpets		192 780		205 800				40,154 50
Onions and garlic.....		589 443				104 885		79,386 673
Olive oil.....	5 250	6 996	2,962 457			2,378 744		645,909 171
Oil, fisheries.....				4,938 995				246,586 855
— linseed.....	320 693	28 949	1,260 0					62,902 174
— of other qualities.....	5 360		3,589 452			32,263 956		151,937 245
Codfish and others, dry and salted.....	312 270	519 950	900 40			6,024 155		733,077 585
Trays of iron, and of China paper.....				153 174			40 0	8,797 513
Bacon.....								16,702 538
Barilla.....								34,102 482
Potatoes.....	1,344 498	857 62	5 115	957 600		382 267		61,352 384
False jewellery.....				50 0				12,578 380
Bonnets and caps, ready made								4,981 560
Hats, different qualities.....		78 750	10,000 780	2,142 500	101,757 600	2,149 260		434,027 897
Boots and shoes.....	560 0	224 390		8,873 232		1,152 150		645,551 953
Limestone.....		1 50						2,214 574
Salt beef and pork, hung and dried.....	421 200	3,979 438	2,945 176	67 980	161 280	14,560 498		2,264,601 473
Jerk beef and dried tongues...			2,312,782 651					313,004 651
Carriages, gigs, &c.....								40,372 930
Playing cards.....								6,362 700
Coals.....	1,104 512	6,382 967	9,721 287	2,457 466		15,915 569		891,679 645
Wax, and do. manufactured...						60 480		125,569 792
Umbrellas, silk and cotton...				295 155				104,250 635
Cigars and tobacco in leaf...	168 981	6 232	4,666 478	18,943 350	961 300	1,951 31	6,500 0	214,032 981
Horns, ox.....			873 0					873 0
Lead, pig, sheet, &c.....			157 500					159,771 483
Copper sheathing, &c.....	42 0	3,102 750				3 650		270,291 682
Pickles.....	108 870	46 200				14 980		84,953 665
Corks.....		88 0	328 200					15,714 208
Hides, dried.....		35 280		48 0				52,034 376

(continued)

C O U N T R Y F R O M W H E N C E I M P O R T E D .

NAME & CLASSIFICATION
OF MERCHANDISE.

	Great Britain.	France.	Portugal.	Spain.	Hanseatic Towns.	United States.	Italy.	Austrian Dominions.
	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.
Pickles.....	31,354 664	28,992 882	16,819 856	3,412 318	1,306 542	893 612	1,612 825	
Corks	23 62	5,852 240	7,476 346	1,989 360	48 0	40	236 880	
Hides, dried.....	534 870	...	1,271 424			510		
Leather, varnished and pre- pared	89,464 704	252,553 678	92,403 794	1,267 50	62,528 525	9,166	2,730 149	
Sweetmeats and confectionary	3,476 475	1,088 610	11,942 107	107 400	1,278 549	318 637	2,534 154	
Drugs and other medicines and medical spirits.....	130,318 941	70,699 766	117,064 43	3,553 677	74,877 467	72,780 329	88,096 770	133 770
Sulphur.....	1,902 140	745 325	954 30	...	163 800	...	2,392 791	
Spices.....	13,755 861	3,725 350	4,888 265	3,459 20	895 362	10,027 283	4 396	
Pewter, zinc, and brass, rough and manufactured.....	65,375 245	5,630 100	6,520 340	392 437	7,567 938	...	166 320	
Mats, of different qualities.....	2,495 850	35 0	8,323 157	...	299 650	399 500	306 600	
Bran	611 100	360 0	1,540 395	...	26,361 756	2,920 200		
Teas.....	33,874 858	...	2,414 560	...	939 60	273,616 542		
Flour of wheat, &c.	117,551 271	63,180 761	1,957 426	22,014 788	20,287 74	2,410,194 751	45,460 411	190,292 617
Beans, peas, &c.....	732 500	613 820	9,636 765	417 500	416 580	829 100	1,021 125	17,271 415
Hay.....	101 988	39 40	...	...	...	3,050 302		
Ironmongery.....	864,283 58	70,652 393	270,660 932	...	100,471 143	15,703 482	520 960	
Iron, steel in bars, &c.	626,220 954	7,119 916	63,649 580	1,782 100	17,685 305	3,224 221	1,469 212	13,918 756
Flowers, artificial	630 0	13,128 900	89 700	...	180 0			
Fireworks.....	105 600	...	720 200	...	...	120 0		
Tin plates	71,456 899	70 500	1,338 180	...	1,904 0	816 0		
Fruit, prepared and dried....	16,420 665	8,460 150	32,063 562	106,441 944	562 430	10,083 430	13,808 963	197 770
Ice	474 306	...	...	...	...	4,260 867		
Grease or fat.....	...	...	...	...	...	3,618 727		
Blacking.....	39,591 909	380 789	...	...	765 245	828 645	367 950	
Musical instruments.....	44,129 774	21,809 253	7,844 289	...	39,462 545			
Mathematical and surgical in- struments	2,922 274	2,648 805	157 0	...	1,146 150	57 500	182 0	366 240
Boats, cutters, oars, &c.....	1,954 350	1,042 334	...	...	848 400	2,874 591	...	
Ratans, cane bottoms.....	...	54 0	10,206 34	...	1,828 680	26,815 860		
Books, printed	8,710 611	43,117 969	43,299 460	26 250	3,688 222	1,423 747	226 22	
— blank.....	810 700	981 0	...	...	1,081 500			
Crockery and glass	573,807 923	119,015 407	34,043 373	40,024 860	89,488 656	1,010 295	1,744 140	999 745
Lamps and chandeliers.....	10,258 769	4,864 650	340 200	...	1,354 500			
Cordage.....	57,680 85	2,089 187	5,323 772	238 705	79,667 972	39,200 127	2,350 487	
Machinery, steam	10,395 0	...	...	...				
— different sorts.....	64,742 882	16,789 520	2,038 400	...	1,747 200	4,620 990		
Timber.....	13,280 810	1,271 130	9,409 970	12 600	16,136 784	110,344 290	161 700	
Ivory and timber manufac- tured	582 187	171 990	300 800	...				
Marble, slate, &c.....	277 500	3,286 600	11,473 751	15 0	410 0	21 0	16,026 485	16 0
Paste, macaroni, &c.....	117 600	1,930 370	2 100	...	61 425		23,671 49	
Furniture	7,466 200	37,615 779	39,147 200	269 800	46,984 10	31,143 859	727 450	686 600
Coin, gold and silver.....	30,713 410	12,504 250	14,007 277	364 992	1,932 0	68,017 364	5,540 800	214 813
Objects of natural history....	100 0	...	...	30 0	...	10 500	40 0	
Sundries not classified.....	22,478 996	15,247 409	17,560 561	384 0	9,002 418	2,696 942	2,874 265	778 74
— for counting-house use....	15,891 365	9,436 542	...	...	10,088 773			
— in use by milliners for lady's dresses.....	205 800	15,415 945	...	...	26 250		190 23	

NAME & CLASSIFICATION OF MERCHANDISE.	C O U N T R I E S F R O M W H E N C E I M P O R T E D.														Total Value declared for Consumption.	
	Holland.		Ports of Baltic.		States of River Plate.		Belgium.		Ports of Pacific.		Ports of Empire.		East Indies and China.			
	rials	m.	rials	m.	rials	m.	rials	m.	rials	m.	rials	m.	rials	m.		
Leather, varnished and pre- pared			322	875	20,578	414	10,073	750	105	0	8,172	529			549,366	978
Sweetmeats and confectionary Drugs and other medicines and medical spirits.....					49	350	1,333	836	4	32	29	860			22,163	10
Sulphur	1,816	373	83	109	2,133	184	3,308	496			1,501	31			566,469	356
Spices	85	200						0					102	400	6,158	86
Pewter, zinc, and brass, rough and manufactured.....	1,615	320	243	726	822	622	24,544	944			37	550	29	200	43,313	261
Mats, of different qualities ..															112,916	551
Bran.....	628	80					608	200					80	0	12,139	757
Teas.....	7	560									88	200			33,029	731
Flour of wheat, &c.....	87	398	101	930	10,704	818	12	800			17,676	326			310,940	780
Beans, peas, &c.....	18	900	468	930	7	430	11	287							2,899,520	371
Hay.....											2	0	4,800	0	36,245	352
Ironmongery.....	5,881	666	274	938	498	807	111,202	595	216	888	3,749	904			3,193	330
Iron, steel in bars, &c., &c.....	4,676	240	45,024	71	2,814	900	14,925	291			11,715	751	105	0	1,444,216	776
Flowers, artificial.....							52	500							814,246	297
Fireworks.....															14,081	100
Tin plates.....													36	0	981	800
Fruit, prepared and dried.....	1	572	82	31	967	120			366	975	626	457			75,585	579
Ice													10	0	190,093	069
Grease or fat.....									2,860	343					4,735	137
Blacking.....															15,213	694
Musical instruments.....											892	500			40,737	944
Mathematical and surgical in- struments.....							1,640	0							116,974	956
Boats, cutters, oars, &c.....					8	400									7,122	129
Ratans, cane bottoms.....							605	0	19,023	712					26,839	367
Books, printed.....	51	50			7,086	260	33	600							47,715	674
— blank.....					138	0	2,824	350			518	40	1,690	240	104,023	721
Crockery and glass.....	517	206					31	500							2,904	700
Lamps and chandeliers.....			4,453	860	84	108	27,186	328			4,503	4			860,985	199
Cordage.....	624	750					1,533	0			31	0	106	300	18,382	619
Machinery, steam.....			372	501	566	685	68	0							188,182	531
— different sorts															10,395	0
Timber.....	1,181	451					76	0			30	0			90,044	992
Ivory and timber manufac- tured.....			141,327	438	6,133	294	105	0	10	0	688	289			300,071	256
Marble, slate, &c.....															1,411	877
Paste, macaroni, &c.....	70	200			356	900									35,353	749
Furniture.....			667	380											26,483	684
Coin, gold and silver.....	1,459	768	1,275	570	33	810					91	500			175,357	856
Objects of natural history.....			240	450	240	450	7,775	670			75,199	105	474	0	1,144,632	929
Sundries, not classified.....			672,266	311					263,872	607					210	500
— for counting-house use.....															75,933	606
— in use by milliners for lady's dresses.....	71	360	30	0	907	29					2,760	556			38,825	656
			1,171	896	86	100	322	875							15,953	908
							115	800							(continued.)	

(continued.)

C O U N T R I E S F R O M W H E N C E I M P O R T E D.

NAME & CLASSIFICATION
OF MERCHANDISE.

	Great Britain.	France.	Portugal.	Spain.	Hanseatic Towns.	United States.	Italy.	Austrian Dominions.
	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.
Sundries in use by gold and silver smiths and watchmakers	299 775	3,749 354				197 400	Σ 196 720	
— for coopers' use	3,263 900	331 100	4,196 170		118 650	11,790 0		
Plated ware	11,441 977	1,183 520			294 0			
Gold and silver wares and jewellery	15,726 911	69,392 705	28,481 672	126 0	303 0			
Straw matting			1,551 850		534 500			
Sundries in use by undertakers, embroiderers, and silk-throwers	4,777 480	23,698 350	26,324 294		18,509 752	1,825 800	19	240
Sundries for hairdressers		122 812			39,743 695	6 400		
— for hatters	903 165	42,007 540	1,259 960		22,863 5	1,193 200	181,269 29	12,723 270
Paper for writing and printing, and pasteboard	27,337 758	126,939 825	8,730 456	6,019 895	6 772		265 776	
Paper for music copying	18 320	224 320	40 320		530 460		226 800	
Paper hangings	20 400	81,782 263	10 500					
Paper stones	543 660		998 850					
Stone-cutters' work	1,586 784	5,738 299	9,914 785		284 0			
Gold for gilding		439 950	450 750					
Skins	243 600	19,792 0	21 0		29,451 885	264 750	2,007 180	17 640
Perfumeries	5,562 783	49,833 150	6,867 470	739 457	18,221 85	170 645		
Paintings in oil	206 370	508 800	688 375	668 498	4 200		26 432	6 750
Gunpowder	155,846 23	64 665	45 225	93 2	1,180 0	12,831 242	5,700 573	4,911 6
Pictures in frames	622 240	16,387 452	472 900		4,779 450	29,636 466	836 850	2,544 524
Hardware in general	99,793 585	508,781 601	35,890 427	2,259 70	299,632 486	118 0	2,335 902	5,719 404
Snuffs	424 200	229 0	168,161 158		2,082 500	300 0	53,223 164	
Clocks	290 400	9,570 750			1,605 575	15,055 642	4,393 0	4,777 500
Clothes, ready made	15,491 205	31,918 456	4,098 870	7 560	2,599 910	1,519 258	3,252 375	18 950
Soap	331,571 943	3,598 632	3,461 652		3,324 707	28,423 191		
Salt	5,792 403	14,253 178	258,010 482	52,424 362	12 905	1,277 700		
Saltpetre	52,278 681		13 583		390 0	15,055 642		
Leeches	1,782 500	11,888 600	5,177 370	5,679 500	19,039 50	1,575 0		
Tallow and tallow candles	1,660 39	399 417	82,989 97	739 113	867 730	1,538 340		
Saddlery	17,089 235	44,895 292	1,800 535		189 0	30 450	35 500	
Seeds, roots, and plants	632 285	2,811 407	1,352 42		89 970	293 452		
Sole leather	44 110	58 800	189 0		31 500			
Tortoiseshell, and ditto manufactured		4,088 280				1,458 411		
Bricks	2,064 140		609 852	460 840	3,147 438	151 200	25 200	
Ink, for writing and printing	12,573 229	1,254 592	31 500		42 0	15 0		
Paint, sundry qualities	84,026 755	5,310 571	404 652	1 400	1,801 899	4,967 43	2,600 171	516 201
Lard	39 756	42 657	10,776 235					
Wheat, and other qualities of grain	2,667 602	2,098 510	6,565 495	3,141 560	11,732 78	1,350 957	19,809 814	3,384 105
Spermaceti candles	6,121 611	18,809 810	5,450 436	9 600	2,203 850	120,206 202	993 650	2,750 236

(continued.)

NAME & CLASSIFICATION OF MERCHANDISE.	C O U N T R I E S F R O M W H E N C E I M P O R T E D.							Total Value declared for Consumption.
	Holland.	Ports of Baltic.	States of River Plate.	Belgium.	Ports of Pacific.	Ports of Empire.	East Indies and China.	
	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	(rials m.	rials m.	rials m.	rials m.
Sundries in use by gold and sil- versmiths, and watchmakers — for coopers' use.....	12 600		2,361 560	211 680	90 720	298 200		4,544 729
Plated ware.....				48 0		2,334 770		25,408 625
Gold and silver wares and jewellery.....			142 379	23,990 0	21 0	912 700		12,967 497
Straw matting.....							114 0	139,096 367
Sundries in use by under- takers, embroiderers, and silk-throwers.....			721 364	1,643 628		817 925		2,231 350
Sundries for hairdressers.....								88,335 833
— for hatters.....			10 80	11,211 515				122 812
Paper for writing and print- ing, and pasteboard.....	1,221 126		32,816 0	8,015 677		47 847		95,142 355
Paper for music copying.....								429,177 88
Paper hangings.....			892 450	755 034				555 508
Mill-stones.....		55 020				40 0		84,226 907
Stone-cutters' work.....		1,965 600						1,637 530
Gold for gilding.....								19,489 468
Skins.....								890 750
Perfumeries.....	509 250	10 500	1,707 146	5,450 550				56,930 931
Paintings in oil.....			438 960	4,198 62	2 100	2,368 280		90,946 562
Gunpowder.....	5 664					114 240		2,190 483
Pictures and frames.....			32 235			4,347 774		174,446 777
Hardware in general.....	1,840 250		6,807 061	178 500		8,596 620	179 0	22,556 777
Snuffs.....				33,223 510		56 452		1,037,251 655
Clocks.....				63 0				171,134 310
Clothes, ready made.....			577 300	690 894		193 240		11,767 325
Soap.....			336 096	504 0		5 880		57,929 543
Salt.....	3,150 0	72 324	32,820 945			12,901 479		378,704 89
Saltpetre.....		1,892 585			45,707 681			441,478 607
Leeches.....		50						113,445 587
Tallow and tallow candles.....	7 860		97,674 807		6,021 605	234 860		49,819 880
Saddlery.....			9 450	452 0		402 330		200,330 213
Seeds, roots, and plants.....			82 250	12 0				64,465 964
Sole leather.....								5,327 856
Tortoiseshell, and ditto manu- factured.....								323 400
Bricks.....	81 50	27 300	327 183					5,546 691
Ink, for writing and printing.....								6,954 203
Paint, sundry qualities.....	32 487		141 417	1,763 790		144 354		13,916 321
Lard.....								101,677 521
Wheat, and other qualities of grain.....	7 225	227 205	42 966	2 100	7,207 200	1 250		10,858 648
Spermaceti candles.....			25,477 725	2,299 626		3 846		58,238 67
								184,326 592
								50,402,139 381
								236,867 198
								50,639,006 579

Sundries not classified in tariff.....

Total entered for consumption in the financial year 1842—43.....

Compare Table No. 10, in Mr. Hudson's Description No. 10, of the 11th of September, 1846.

CHAPTER XV.

ARMY AND NAVY.

THE military staff is considered on an extensive and large scale. There is also supported a large corps of military police or gendarmerie, and a national guard. The national guard is organised by law; and all males from eighteen to forty-five years of age are enrolled in it. They are equipped at their own cost, the nation furnishing arms and ammunition. The national guard performs sentinel duty daily at the palace and public offices.

Captain Wilkes says, "The navy is not effective; they want seamen, and are not likely to have any. A naval academy is established for the education of cadets or midshipmen. Here they enter at twelve years of age, receiving some of the first rudiments of education, and remain four years. After passing an examination, they are sent to sea, serve there four years, and if found qualified are then promoted to second lieutenants.

"The military academy they enter later, remain seven years, passing through various courses of study, and if found competent, they are made lieutenants. From what I understood, the system of education is very imperfect."

STANDING ARMY.—The standing army of Brazil consisted, in 1844, of 24,244 officers and soldiers, viz.:—

	number.
Troops of the line.....	17,095
Volunteers and recruits.....	1,769
National guards in service.....	5,380

THE troops of the line in 1844, were distributed in the provinces as follows:—

COUNTRIES.	Men.	COUNTRIES.	Men.
	number.		number.
Rio de Janeiro	2,453	Brought forward.....	12,875
Bahia.....	620	Pernambuco.....	731
Sergipe.....	118	Parahiba.....	124
Alagoas.....	81	Rio Grande do Norte.....	86
Matto Grosso.....	879	Ceara.....	381
Goyaz.....	234	Piauhy.....	302
Rio Grande do Sul.....	7,758	Maranhão.....	843
Santa Catharina.....	131	Para.....	1,128
San Paulo.....	601	Minas Geraes.....	625
Carried forward.....	12,875	Total.....	17,095

BRAZILIAN Naval Force, 1844.

VESSELS.	Vessels in Commission.			Vessels in Ordinary.	Vessels condemned.
	Vessels.	Men.	Guns.		
	number.	number.	number.	number.	number.
Ships of the line.....	..	..	..	1	..
Frigates.....	1	163	34	2	2
Corvettes.....	5	808	102	1	1
Brigs.....	4	273	44	..	..
Brigs and schooners.....	7	376	76	..	2
Patachos.....	4	177	26	..	..
Schooners.....	9	277	32	1	..
Yachts.....	10	249	11	..	..
Cutter.....	1	23	1	..	..
Gunboats.....	13	142	12	..	..
Steamers.....	6	214	12	2	..
Transports.....	7	128	..	..	..
Total.....	67	2820	350	7	5

Naval Officers, 1844.—Admiral, 1; Vice-admirals, 2; Commanders of the Squadrons, 4; Commanders of Divisions, 8; Post-captains, 16; Captains, 30; Commanders, 60; First-lieutenants, 160; Second-lieutenants, 240; students in the Naval Academy, 67.

The Judiciary.—The department of Civil Justice is administered by the following officers:—1. Justices of the Peace, elected by the people; 2. Municipal Judges, appointed by the crown; 3. Judges of Orphans, ditto; 4. Judges of Common Law, ditto; 5. Judges of the Supreme Court, ditto.

DESCRIPTION of Specimens of Timber, the Growth of this Province and the Province of Pernambuco and Alagoas.

NAME OF TIMBER.	MAXIMUM.		To what Purpose applicable.	Quantity.	Gravity.	Peculiar Quality.
	Long.	Cube.				
No.	feet.	feet.				
1. Sicicupera-assou.....	80	3	beams of ships	unlimited	heavier than water	{ tough fibre, entrelaced.
2. „ -merim.....	60	1	{ bends, knees, ribs &c., of ships	do.	do.	{ strong tough fibre, do. everlasting.
3. Amarello-venatico	100	3	{ planking and chosen pieces for ornaments	do.	less than water	{ strong, easily worked, and like mahogany.
4. „ Flor d'alгадаo ..	80	2	planking	do.	do.	{ canary colour, easily worked.
5. „ -Buzuntao	70	2	ornamental fittings	do.	heavier	hard.
6. Camasari	100	1½	ships' masts	do.	less	{ very elastic, and does not splinter.
7. „ Branco	..	..	do.	do.	do.	do.
8. „ Vermelho.....	..	..	do.	do.	do.	do.
9. Gararoba Vermelho	60	1	beams, &c.	do.	do.	do.
10. „ Amarello.....	..	..	do.	do.	do.	hard and durable.
11. Pao d'Oleo	80	1½	{ planking ships, & ornamental work	abundant	do.	{ ornamental, and full of oil, from which is extracted the oil of copaiba.
12. Barabu.....	60	1½	ornamental work	do.	heavier	{ when first cut brown, shortly after mulberry colour; even grained, and splits easily.
13. Coração de Negro.....	60	1½	{ blocks, sheaves, bridges, &c.	do.	do.	{ when first cut is deep brown, turns black by contact with the atmosphere.
14. Sapoe airana, Vermelha	80	1	{ beams of houses and ships	do.	do.	{ very heavy and durable; splits very easily into long laths for roofs of houses.
15. „ Amarella	80	1	do.	do.	do.	hard and durable.
16. Imbiriba Branca.....	80	1½	beams, &c.	do.	do.	do.
17. „ Preta	80	1½	do.	do.	do.	do.
18. Pao Ferro.....	60	1	to turners' work	do.	do.	{ very heavy, compact, and of a brown colour.
19. Angelim	50	2	do. and beams.	do.	do.	{ hard, light yellow, everlasting.
19A. „ Margoso.....	..	..	do.	do.	do.	do.
20. Larenginha.....	..	..	{ do. and cabinet-makers'	do.	do.	{ smooth grain, light yellow.
21. Pitia Marfim	30	¾	do. do.	do.	do.	{ close smooth grain, light yellow.
22. „ Arroba.....	..	..	do. do.	do.	do.	{ hard, and takes a good polish.
23. „ Branca.....	..	..	do. do.	do.	do.	good work.
24. Angica	15	1	ornamental	do.	do.	do.
25. Hollandine.....	30	1	beams of houses	do.	lighter	do.
26. Despoté	30	1	beams, &c.	do.	heavier	do.
27. Oitocica	30	1½	ornamental	do.	lighter	do.
28. Carnauba	35	1	{ beams of houses &c.	do.	heavier	do.
29. Larangeira	10	1	{ ornamental work and tools	do.	lighter	hard.
30. Pao Carga.....	50	3	planking	do.	do.	something like birch.
31. Iacaranda.....	10	1	ornamental	not abundant	heavier	hard.
32. Loiero.....	50	3	flooring and ceiling	abundant	lighter	{ soft; insects will not enter.
33. Cedar.....	50	3	{ ceiling and interior work	do.	do.	{ soft; free from insects.
34. Genepapo.....	50	2	turning and carving	do.	do.	light, tough wood.
35. Mesque Bravo.....	50	2	{ beams, machinery, &c.	do.	heavier	hard and durable.
36. Ingapore	50	2	do.	do.	do.	do.
37. Boranhei	50	2	do.	do.	do.	do.
38. Pao Cabello	50	2	do.	do.	do.	do.
39. Pao Iangado.....	30	1	catamarans	do.	lighter	a sort of corkwood.
40. Mullo Vermelho	50	3	{ beams, machinery, &c.	do.	heavier	durable.
41. Cundern.....	40	1½	ornamental	do.	do.	hard.
42. Pachino.....	50	3	beams, &c.	do.	do.	durable.
43. Masaranduba	80	4	do.	do.	do.	very good.
44. Golandi	80	4	do.	do.	do.	do.
45. Iatoba.....	50	3	ornamental	do.	do.	do.
46. Leiteira.....	50	3	beams, &c.	do.	do.	do.
47. Mandu.....	50	3	do.	do.	do.	do.
48. Carapato.....	50	3	do.	do.	do.	do.
49. Marcia Preta.....	50	1	do.	do.	do.	do.
50. Dorada.....	50	2	do.	do.	do.	do.

NAMES of other Trees.

NAME OF TIMBER.	NAME OF TIMBER.	NAME OF TIMBER.	NAME OF TIMBER.
No.	No.	No.	No.
51. Secapera.	93. Gonzala Alves.	136. Carasco.	178. Pao Santo.
52. " Catoli.	94. Batinga.	137. Carvao.	179. Mamaguda.
53. " Carne de Vaca.	95. " Branca.	138. Iambeira.	180. Cacao.
54. " Acari.	96. " Vermelha.	139. Pto.	181. Balsamo ou Copaira.
55. Pao Sanqué.	97. Setá Casca.	140. Pao Carne.	182. Viageira.
56. Louro Cherizo.	98. Japaranduha.	141. Pao de Pomba.	183. Ticoom.
57. " Amarello.	99. Caboatao.	142. Batteiga.	184. Cajaeira.
58. " Fediente.	100. Camboim.	143. Carajaondê.	185. Pitombeira.
59. " Tê.	101. Mapermiga.	144. Casquinha.	186. Bordoazinho.
60. Cedra, Cajeatinga.	102. Pororoca.	145. Carapatinha.	187. Merenduba.
61. " Vedadeira.	103. Gamellera.	146. Martello.	188. Aroriba.
62. Manguba.	104. " Branca.	147. Manga.	189. Boronomé.
63. Angelim Doce.	105. " Vermelha.	148. " da Matta.	190. Caxneira.
64. Sapocaia de Pitao.	106. " de Pulga.	149. Masaranduba.	191. Pao d'Alho.
65. " de Inverno.	107. Mainao.	150. " da Matta.	192. Sasafra.
66. Pirana Verdadeira.	108. " Iamtia.	151. " da Praia.	193. Canella Cheirosa.
67. " Inverno.	109. " Manso.	152. Pujuca.	194. " Federente.
68. Pao d'Arco.	110. Cabella de Cotin.	153. Quatinguaba.	195. " Fumecete.
69. " de Verde.	111. Coipema.	154. Catinga de Porco.	196. " Lemao.
70. " Roxo.	112. Jaguarana.	155. Amberim Vermelha.	197. Alcanforeira.
71. " Cheero.	113. Mangabeira.	156. Almeixa.	198. Pao Brazil.
72. Cainacari de Curruno.	114. Sambacium.	157. Cortegena.	199. Funcho.
73. " de Lezo.	115. Emhahaba.	158. Mangue Vermelha.	200. Tamarina.
74. Murici.	116. " de Matta.	159. " Branca.	201. Pitangeira.
75. Pieote.	117. " de Capoirca.	160. " Manca.	202. Bragelleta.
76. Mamajuda.	118. Iaboticabeira.	161. Cabraiba.	203. Violletta.
77. " Branca.	119. Oitizeira.	162. Sapocia.	204. Maracanha.
78. " Vermelha.	120. " do Cor.	163. Peroba Vermelha.	205. Mustarba.
79. Imberendeba.	121. " da Praia.	164. " Amarella.	206. Palmeira.
80. Peloneta.	122. Gulandeim.	165. " Branca.	207. Canjica or Snakewood.
81. Jaqueira.	123. " Carvalho.	166. Oleo Cabuceira.	208. Sebastiao d'Arruda.
82. Ingahi.	124. " Branca.	167. Arueira.	209. Casca de Tartarguga.
83. Ingazeira Cainao.	125. " Vermelha.	168. Grapeapunha.	210. Iacaranda Rei.
84. " Sepê.	126. Articoom.	169. Guatumba.	211. " Cabunca.
85. " Paboa.	127. " Cagao.	170. " Vermelha.	212. " Taa.
86. " Cabelludo.	128. " Apê.	171. Tupicarú.	213. " Gaviao.
87. Morroso.	129. Mulunga.	172. Arepicara.	214. " Branca.
88. Barbatimao.	130. Espinheiro.	173. Jiguiteba.	215. " Violetta.
89. Barauna.	131. Araca.	174. Jequebã.	216. " Pardo.
90. Arniena.	132. " Assou.	175. Gitahi.	217. " Vermelha.
91. Sebastiao d'Aunda.	133. " Prelea.	176. Canafestula.	218. " Ipê.
92. Camaru.	134. Araca Brava.	177. Parahiba.	219. " de Brejo.
	135. " Merim.		

BOOK X.

MISCELLANEOUS CHAPTERS.

CHAPTER I.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH CUBA, SPANISH AND AMERICAN REPUBLICS, AND BRAZIL.

THE progress of the trade of England with Cuba, Mexico, and the states of South America though comparatively limited by the condition of those countries is still of great importance.

The exports from England were

	1822. £	1825. £
To Mexico	90,000	1,400,000
To Columbia	27,000	650,000
To Buenos Ayres	230,000	1,600,000
	347,000	
	3,303,000	
	3,650,000	3,650,000
Increase	£3,303,000	

According to the official accounts of the British custom-house the value of the exports of England to the new republics in 1824 amounted to the several values as follows, viz. :

To the Brazils	£
To Spanish America	3,425,324
To the same destination, passing by the West Indies	2,377,100
Total exports of Great Britain to the new republics of America	4,197,576
According to the tables published by the French government, in the month of May, 1829, France exported to the new republics, goods to the value of	
The United States	10,000,000
Spain, Germany, and other parts of Europe	640,000
China and the East Indies	3,330,000
	4,480,000
	1,150,000
Total	19,600,000

These reports are exclusive of the important exports of British manufactures from the British West Indies to the Spanish American Republics.

A RETURN of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered and cleared in Trade with Mexico, from the Year 1820 to the latest Account.

YEARS.	ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.				Total declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to Mexico.
	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	
1820.....	1	328	..	..	..	166	..	..	£
1821.....	2	480	..	..	1	1,131	..	..	1,076
1822.....	4	1,246	..	..	6	1,974	..	..	89,360
1823.....	5	1,402	..	..	11	2,483	..	409	267,418
1824.....	5	919	..	..	16	8,157	1	306	391,997
1825.....	10	1,705	..	..	47	3,620	..	..	1,042,678
1826.....	9	1,283	..	..	20	5,238	..	..	471,285
1827.....	11	2,015	..	..	30	3,890	1	266	692,800
1828.....	30	6,342	..	..	20	3,369	..	..	307,029
1829.....	18	3,386	..	..	21	8,369	..	..	303,562
1830.....	35	6,236	..	..	51	8,574	2	483	978,441
1831.....	32	4,971	5	668	30	5,056	4	639	728,858
1832.....	34	6,006	1	78	20	3,740	2	326	199,821
1833.....	32	5,814	2	326	34	5,591	2	326	421,487
1834.....	35	6,893	2	490	29	5,502	2	490	459,610
1835.....	38	7,098	1	245	35	6,39	1	277	402,820
1836.....	31	5,343	2	425	21	3,880	..	..	254,822
1837.....	44	7,591	..	..	38	6,126	..	..	520,200
1838.....	35	7,003	..	..	26	5,056	..	..	439,776
1839.....	34	7,374	1	95	29	4,836	3	376	660,170
1840.....	51	10,025	..	..	26	4,392	1	151	465,330
1841.....	65	12,868	..	..	34	5,836	3	488	434,901
1842.....									
1843.....									
1844.....									
1845.....									

AN Account of the Number of Ships, distinguishing British and Foreign, with their Tonnage, that have entered and cleared for Cuba from the United Kingdom during the past Five Years, ending the 5th of January, 1846.—(This Account for the Year 1846, includes, with Cuba, all the other Foreign West Indies.)

YEARS, ending 5th January.	ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.			
	BRITISH.		FOREIGN.		BRITISH.		FOREIGN.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
1841.....	134	30,777	32	6,597	103	23,137	52	17,807
1842.....	145	33,377	14	2,509	142	37,295	41	10,677
1843.....	143	47,217	34	7,661	162	43,890	61	17,186
1844.....	147	40,611	53	12,206	130	36,050	75	24,748
1845.....	122	34,712	41	10,243	109	31,289	62	15,396
1846.....	206	59,294	76	16,865	179	54,756	109	27,995

AN Account of the Number of Ships, distinguishing British and Foreign, with their Tonnage, that have entered and cleared for the Brazils from the United Kingdom during the past Five Years, ending the 5th of January, 1846.

YEARS, ending 5th January.	ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.			
	BRITISH.		FOREIGN.		BRITISH.		FOREIGN.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
1841.....	120	29,212	11	2014	207	49,545	42	10,997
1842.....	153	37,507	14	2913	185	46,078	39	7,509
1843.....	124	30,875	16	3467	209	53,128	80	20,529
1844.....	158	38,020	8	2099	207	50,034	50	12,983
1845.....	200	45,649	14	2589	255	60,521	47	12,574
1846.....	248	58,119	14	3888	231	56,135	91	24,626

An Account of the Number of Ships, distinguishing British and Foreign, with their Tonnage, that have entered and cleared for Mexico, and the other Ports of South America, from the United Kingdom, during the past five Years, ending the 5th of January, 1846.

YEARS, ending 5th January.	ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.			
	BRITISH.		FOREIGN.		BRITISH.		FOREIGN.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.	number.	tons.
1840.....	227	40,291	20	3,996	185	41,072	10	1,992
1841.....	375	82,520	11	2,972	191	42,626	11	2,276
1842.....	340	77,187	48	11,561	214	47,604	21	5,469
1843.....	364	84,754	16	4,565	259	55,261	15	3,193
1844.....	337	97,495	7	1,516	266	70,617	13	2,310
1845.....	320	83,963	13	3,318	356	104,524	15	2,933

BRITISH and IRISH Produce and Manufactures Exported from the United Kingdom to Cuba.

ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared value.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared value.
		£			£
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery.....	1840	3,744	Linen manufactures, including linen yarn.....	1840	102,945
	1841	3,743		1841	106,897
	1842	4,575		1842	105,097
	1843	6,581		1843	201,580
	1844	3,949		1844	193,179
	1845	9,753		1845	313,663
Brass and copper manufactures.....	1840	13,304	Machinery and mill work....	1840	12,833
	1841	14,884		1841	14,838
	1842	8,750		1842	12,134
	1843	14,546		1843	3,843
	1844	15,155		1844	9,471
	1845	20,919		1845	6,456
Coals, cinders, and culm.....	1840	3,714	Silk manufactures.....	1840	6,901
	1841	6,261		1841	6,630
	1842	16,079		1842	5,173
	1843	7,005		1843	15,949
	1844	6,677		1844	10,230
	1845	10,160		1845	9,534
Cotton manufactures, including cotton yarn.....	1840	191,660	Tin and pewter wares, tin unwrought, and tin plates....	1840	4,210
	1841	272,809		1841	3,580
	1842	104,556		1842	2,609
	1843	181,136		1843	5,612
	1844	224,079		1844	4,907
	1845	602,028		1845	6,188
Earthenware of all sorts.....	1840	19,162	Woollen manufactures, including yarn.....	1840	46,155
	1841	16,531		1841	34,195
	1842	8,930		1842	30,550
	1843	18,165		1843	40,896
	1844	11,721		1844	54,406
	1845	29,518		1845	67,356
Glass.....	1840	8,750	Other articles.....	1840	22,295
	1841	6,213		1841	23,710
	1842	3,242		1842	18,221
	1843	4,056		1843	35,343
	1844	7,677		1844	21,582
	1845	7,932		1845	7,800
Hardware and cutlery.....	1840	27,666	Aggregate value of British and Irish produce and manufactures.....	1840	514,782
	1841	36,766		1841	592,546
	1842	15,946		1842	306,253
	1843	33,619		1843	624,871
	1844	46,047		1844	654,214
	1845	68,904		1845	124,915
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought.....	1840	51,423			
	1841	45,489			
	1842	30,291			
	1843	56,540			
	1844	45,134			
	1845	53,984			

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

QUANTITIES of the principal Articles Imported into the United Kingdom from Cuba, and Quantities so Imported entered for Home Consumption.

ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.
		tons.	tons.			tons.	tons.
Cedar wood....	1840	1,382	1,141	Mahogany.....	1840	781	780
	1841	499	674		1841	382	456
	1842	459	326		1842	184	340
	1843	1,474	1,251		1843	1,223	1,154
	1844	1,392	1,196		1844	3,282	3,145
	1845				1845	7,244	
Cochineal, granilla and dust..		lbs.	lbs.	Molasses.....		cwts.	cwts.
	1840	14,180	11,646		1840	32,083	1,735
	1841	11,403	7,630		1841	3,423	2,759
	1842	99,697	49,185		1842	207	1
	1843	4,867	29,579		1843	4,631	3
	1844		2,959		1844	52	627,538
	1845	893			1845		
Coffee.....				Rum.....		Gallons (including overproof.)	Gallons (including overproof.)
	1840	1,955,928	705		1840	271	1
	1841	725,223	317		1841	46,047	2
	1842	2,019,626	260,503		1842	35,380	4
	1843	1,054,247	418,826		1843	70,100	12
	1844	555,460	371,552		1844	188,078	2,469,135
	1845	187,855	34,293,190		1845	51,915	
Copper ore.....		tons.	tons.	Sugar unrefined		cwts.	cwts.
	1840	26,289			1840	304,063	414
	1841	32,659	10,630		1841	134,352	150
	1842	32,270	31,355		1842	207,602	16
	1843	31,683	34,073		1843	448,761	4
	1844	34,765	145		1844	299,276	29
	1845				1845	352,462	4,856,604
Fustic.....				Sugar refined...			
	1840	1,153	1,028		1840	3,754	1
	1841	1,610	1,123		1841	1	
	1842	861	691		1842		
	1843	1,005	917		1843		
	1844	346	513		1844		
	1845	462			1845		
Honey.....		cwts.	cwts.	Tobacco unmanufactured....		lbs.	lbs.
	1840	1,252	870		1840	259,702	176,457
	1841	6,871	903		1841	401,410	213,256
	1842	8,068	403		1842	235,514	189,689
	1843	5,179	483		1843	494,954	179,431
	1844	2,829	806		1844	247,263	230,194
	1845				1845	453,061	25,917,100
Indigo.....		lbs.	lbs.	Tobacco manufactured, or cigars			
	1840				1840	153,038	166,733
	1841	3,128	861		1841	260,021	170,404
	1842	16,298	5,317		1842	311,848	167,749
	1843	62,675	43,574		1843	252,789	173,318
	1844		1,738		1844	208,822	171,827
	1845				1845	268,936	245,059
Logwood..		tons.	tons.	Wool, cotton			
	1840	179	240		1840	4,714	4,714
	1841	493	311		1841	23,690	23,690
	1842	50	232		1842	140,958	140,533
	1843	268	282		1843	218	
	1844	64	32		1844		
	1845	133			1845		

BRAZIL.—British and Irish Produce and Manufactures Exported from the United Kingdom to Brazil.

ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.
		£			£
Alkali, mineral, viz., soda and barilla	1840	1,345	Apparel, slops, and haberdashery.....	1840	15,021
	1841	1,344		1841	16,129
	1842	3,213		1842	14,630
	1843	2,103		1843	20,282
	1844	3,358		1844	30,120
	1845			1845	18,261
Apothecary wares.....	1840	2,568	Arms and ammunition.....	1840	16,066
	1841	3,295		1841	12,576
	1842	4,039		1842	15,148
	1843	4,932		1843	18,155
	1844	5,938		1844	26,478
	1845			1845	28,189

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.
		£			£
Bacon and hams	1840	929	Yarn.....	1840	328
	1841	221		1841	1,052
	1842	545		1842	
	1843	754		1843	205
	1844	282		1844	1,667
	1845	148		1845	148
Beef and pork	1840	176	Earthenware of all sorts	1840	40,025
	1841	14		1841	38,183
	1842	146		1842	38,976
	1843	444		1843	46,461
	1844	6		1844	47,752
	1845	1,584		1845	41,082
Beer and ale	1840	12,535	Glass.....	1840	18,057
	1841	12,381		1841	19,106
	1842	16,804		1842	21,445
	1843	20,541		1843	27,437
	1844	12,713		1844	16,783
	1845	26,922		1845	18,295
Blacking.....	1840	2,791	Hardwares and cutlery.....	1840	58,021
	1841	3,292		1841	48,071
	1842	4,836		1842	50,756
	1843	2,391		1843	80,070
	1844	1,659		1844	79,088
	1845			1845	76,998
Books, printed.....	1840	829	Hats of all sorts.....	1840	9,781
	1841	646		1841	5,258
	1842	488		1842	3,953
	1843	421		1843	1,517
	1844	526		1844	4,297
	1845	577		1845	2,018
Brass and copper manufactures.....	1840	40,914	Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought.....	1840	59,320
	1841	33,503		1841	59,200
	1842	33,085		1842	53,013
	1843	36,815		1843	54,996
	1844	44,261		1844	61,196
	1845	33,308		1845	68,482
Butter.....	1840	72,227	Lead and shot	1840	7,945
	1841	66,144		1841	8,771
	1842	63,166		1842	10,910
	1843	64,294		1843	9,021
	1844	53,544		1844	10,240
	1845	65,257		1845	5,000
Cabinet and upholstery wares	1840	1,966	Leather, wrought and unwrought.....	1840	16,482
	1841	1,437		1841	12,044
	1842	801		1842	15,028
	1843	921		1843	23,309
	1844	2,710		1844	17,519
	1845			1845	10,177
Carriages.....	1840	1,978	Leather, saddlery, and harness.....	1840	3,953
	1841	5,489		1841	4,073
	1842	2,767		1842	1,870
	1843	1,748		1843	2,061
	1844	2,290		1844	2,592
	1845			1845	1,763
Coals, cinders, and culm.....	1840	9,718	Linen manufactures	1840	235,378
	1841	6,134		1841	243,907
	1842	17,552		1842	152,484
	1843	9,396		1843	154,323
	1844	9,597		1844	170,262
	1845	17,732		1845	213,004
Cordage.....	1840	1,307	Machinery and mill-work....	1840	17,897
	1841	159		1841	17,698
	1842	4,293		1842	24,941
	1843	8,335		1843	17,342
	1844	1,622		1844	19,234
	1845	2,793		1845	16,685
Cotton manufactures.....	1840	1,524,709	Musical instruments.....	1840	5,500
	1841	1,471,228		1841	6,107
	1842	819,530		1842	5,320
	1843	1,096,669		1843	5,687
	1844	1,359,991		1844	5,902
	1845	1,429,361		1845	

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.
		£			£
Oil, linseed, hempseed, and rapeseed.....	1840	2,166	Tin, unwrought.....	1840	1,287
	1841	3,583		1841	1,951
	1842	4,922		1842	2,053
	1843	6,006		1843	478
	1844	7,159		1844	1,420
	1845			1845	980
Painters' colours.....	1840	7,196	Tin and pewter wares, and tin plates.....	1840	3,481
	1841	6,398		1841	5,064
	1842	7,099		1842	5,782
	1843	9,129		1843	11,108
	1844	7,888		1844	4,882
	1845	9,254		1845	5,959
Plate, plated wares, jewellery, and watches.....	1840	1,528	Umbrellas and parasols.....	1840	8,085
	1841	3,952		1841	6,518
	1842	2,356		1842	4,245
	1843	4,004		1843	4,935
	1844	3,093		1844	7,383
	1845	4,769		1845	
Saltpetre, refined in the United Kingdom.....	1840	2,137	Woollen manufactures, including yarn.....	1840	307,930
	1841	4,284		1841	329,984
	1842	4,086		1842	258,308
	1843	5,121		1843	278,171
	1844	6,857		1844	288,940
	1845			1845	309,626
Silk manufactures.....	1840	25,515	Other articles.....	1840	15,393
	1841	29,217		1841	12,721
	1842	21,996		1842	14,039
	1843	30,403		1843	15,720
	1844	28,606		1844	18,322
	1845	14,022		1845	60,444
Soap and candles.....	1840	67,001	Aggregate value of British and Irish produce and manufactures.....	1840	2,625,853
	1841	51,016		1841	2,556,554
	1842	45,384		1842	1,156,805
	1843	57,812		1843	2,440,133
	1844	43,650		1844	2,313,538
	1845	10,908		1845	2,213,306
Stationery.....	1840	6,338			
	1841	4,314			
	1842	6,796			
	1843	6,616			
	1844	3,011			
	1845	3,260			

QUANTITIES of the principal Articles Imported into the United Kingdom from Brazil, and Quantities so Imported entered for Home Consumption.

ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.
		cwts.	cwts.			cwts.	cwts.
Annotto.....	1840	277	68	Hides, untanned	1840	24,190	12,569
	1841	772	178		1841	13,815	7,480
	1842	834	530		1842	44,927	21,520
	1843	400	484		1843	58,191	48,633
	1844	243	138		1844	125,732	122,052
	1845				1845	187,340	
Balsam, capivi..	1840	572	546	Horns, horn-tips, and pieces of horns.....	1840	805	575
	1841	668	456		1841	889	1,026
	1842	464	443		1842	1,589	1,654
	1843	811	722		1843	3,022	2,384
	1844	1,066	736		1844	5,277	5,604
	1845				1845		
Cocca.....	1840	67,382	2	India-rubber, or caoutchouc...	1840	4,459	4,776
	1841	296,794	96		1841	4,926	4,615
	1842	185,756	248		1842	1,986	2,781
	1843	1,033,368	424		1843	2,735	2,178
	1844	580,501	48,544		1844	3,772	2,928
	1845	1,543,196	2,579,497		1845		
Coffee.....	1840	8,608,616	22,625	Isinglass.....	1840	286	358
	1841	2,191,853	1,226		1841	269	301
	1842	5,833,345	47,015		1842	304	252
	1843	4,923,114	307,243		1843	323	325
	1844	3,499,660	670,308		1844	523	482
	1845	5,449,754	34,293,190		1845		

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.
		lbs.	lbs.			cwts.	cwts.
Radix ipecacuanhæ.....	1840	4,484	5,672	Tapioca	1840	983	1,699
	1841	977	9,815		1841	1,870	1,679
	1842	4,345	10,051		1842	2,305	2,224
	1843	..	6,622		1843	2,503	2,417
	1844	..	7,301		1844	6,494	4,965
	1845				1845		
		gallons (including overproof.)	gallons (including overproof.)			tons.	tons.
Rum	1840	26,059	7	Woods, viz.: Brazil	1840	900	36
	1841	12,154	17		1841	1,693	188
	1842	4	13		1842	127	608
	1843				1843	470	657
	1844	16,211	5		1844	293	406
	1845	46,342	2,469,135		1845		
		lbs.	lbs.				
Sarsaparilla	1840	4,141	780	Fustic.....	1840	192	192
	1841	1,399	563		1841	147	147
	1842	5,572	3,537		1842	326	371
	1843	11,736	7,718		1843	683	683
	1844	15,004	33,529		1844	558	558
	1845	23,064			1845	391	
		cwts.	cwts.				
Sugar, unrefined	1840	216,018	1,545	Rosewood	1840	1,491	1,545
	1841	365,663	27		1841	2,488	1,682
	1842	260,068	11		1842	1,069	1,824
	1843	234,155	31		1843	3,235	2,902
	1844	271,415	21		1844	932	1,906
	1845	325,359	4,856,604		1845		
Tallow	1840			Zebra wood	1840	38	115
	1841	934	934		1841	156	135
	1842	2,475	2,475		1842	178	87
	1843	3,654	2,942		1843	201	170
	1844	4,410	4,825		1844	101	211
	1845	2,450	1,191,896		1845		
						lbs.	lbs.
				Wool, cotton....	1840	14,779,171	13,952,644
					1841	16,671,348	14,095,988
					1842	15,222,828	13,554,546
					1843	18,675,123	15,893,142
					1844	21,084,744	20,846,395
					1845	20,157,633	

BRITISH and Irish Produce and Manufactures Exported from the United Kingdom to Mexico, and the other States of Central and South America, exclusive of Brazil, during the following Years:

ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.
		£			£
Apothecary wares.....	1840	4,715	Brass and copper manufactures	1840	4,951
	1841	3,292		1841	4,416
	1842	6,126		1842	8,313
	1843	6,632		1843	9,826
	1844	5,326		1844	16,123
	1845			1845	15,623
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery.....	1840	19,144	Cabinet and upholstery wares.	1840	2,508
	1841	20,925		1841	3,295
	1842	24,275		1842	5,717
	1843	22,239		1843	4,806
	1844	35,733		1844	4,654
	1845	29,675		1845	
Arms and ammunition	1840	7,633	Carriages	1840	5,184
	1841	10,155		1841	2,767
	1842	17,454		1842	4,067
	1843	37,230		1843	4,047
	1844	18,763		1844	1,341
	1845	7,932		1845	
Beer and ale	1840	2,312	Coals, cinders, and culm.....	1840	3,490
	1841	4,271		1841	5,216
	1842	6,111		1842	3,441
	1843	6,568		1843	5,211
	1844	7,072		1844	8,199
	1845	9,994		1845	13,155
Books, printed	1840	1,848	Cordage.....	1840	1,227
	1841	1,070		1841	966
	1842	1,278		1842	1,610
	1843	2,364		1843	848
	1844	1,514		1844	1,874
	1845	1,817		1845	1,204

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Declared Value.
		£			£
Cotton manufactures, including cotton yarn.....	1840	2,248,870	Musical instruments	1840	6,650
	1841	1,408,716		1841	8,968
	1842	1,661,620		1842	9,549
	1843	1,476,347		1843	16,492
	1844	1,355,675		1844	10,348
	1845	1,792,918		1845	
Earthenware of all sorts	1840	32,606	Painters' colours.....	1840	6,965
	1841	41,729		1841	4,335
	1842	52,931		1842	5,398
	1843	60,419		1843	4,748
	1844	35,496		1844	6,281
	1845	32,830		1845	8,334
Glass	1840	10,705	Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	1840	7,436
	1841	10,738		1841	7,552
	1842	11,773		1842	16,058
	1843	11,697		1843	11,348
	1844	11,593		1844	6,680
	1845	11,184		1845	6,878
Hardwares and cutlery.....	1840	76,608	Silk manufactures.....	1840	101,511
	1841	104,669		1841	66,288
	1842	150,730		1842	69,198
	1843	158,431		1843	71,072
	1844	143,608		1844	75,691
	1845	131,658		1845	41,160
Hats of all sorts.....	1840	1,367	Soap and candles.. ..	1840	5,728
	1841	1,198		1841	4,313
	1842	632		1842	2,673
	1843	3,547		1843	1,404
	1844	1,733		1844	1,766
	1845	1,395		1845	2,873
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought.....	1840	61,316	Stationery	1840	9,050
	1841	60,814		1841	8,353
	1842	66,424		1842	8,524
	1843	55,889		1843	8,563
	1844	66,060		1844	8,693
	1845	42,004		1845	10,681
Lead and shot.....	1840	1,468	Sugar, refined.....	1840	429
	1841	1,017		1841	2,202
	1842	2,099		1842	7,765
	1843	1,450		1843	9,508
	1844	1,078		1844	3,534
	1845	2,544		1845	542
Leather, wrought and unwrought	1840	6,147	Tin and pewter wares, tin unwrought, and tin plates.....	1840	5,666
	1841	6,667		1841	7,770
	1842	15,069		1842	10,154
	1843	18,619		1843	12,889
	1844	17,968		1844	9,972
	1845	16,488		1845	6,500
Leather, saddlery, and harness	1840	1,363	Woollen manufactures, including yarn	1840	541,338
	1841	2,231		1841	468,108
	1842	2,432		1842	648,496
	1843	3,036		1843	839,300
	1844	3,172		1844	775,767
	1845	3,240		1845	833,690
Linen manufactures, including linen yarn	1840	370,424	Other articles.....	1840	17,330
	1841	291,812		1841	15,967
	1842	361,977		1842	25,439
	1843	383,882		1843	25,384
	1844	337,931		1844	19,802
	1845	382,686		1845	47,610
Machinery and mill-work	1840	10,363	Aggregate value of British and Irish produce and manufactures	1840	3,576,357
	1841	5,582		1841	2,585,402
	1842	10,491		1842	3,217,824
	1843	12,531		1843	3,286,327
	1844	19,820		1844	3,013,267
	1845	21,403		1845	3,490,705

QUANTITIES of the principal Articles Imported into the United Kingdom from Mexico, and the other States of Central and South America, and Quantities so Imported entered for Home Consumption.

ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.
		lbs.	lbs.			lbs.	lbs.
Bark, Peruvian..	1840	69,267	47,514	Indigo	1840	124,766	96,368
	1841	208,823	53,297		1841	247,031	69,619
	1842	124,641	86,152		1842	155,003	89,131
	1843	303,665	61,088		1843	130,836	95,835
	1844	225,415	80,136		1844	120,148	93,469
	1845	4,706			1845	100,444	
Cochineal, grannilla, and dust.	1840	379,226	206,559	Mother-of-pearl shells.....	1840	3,667	4,830
	1841	56,131	67,490		1841	1,421	32
	1842	259,980	162,250		1842	3,074	727
	1843	421,742	415,835		1843	6,362	8,082
	1844	303,890	273,397		1844	8,411	7,227
	1845	2,620			1845		
Cocoa	1840	1,058,015	184	Orchal	1840	732	522
	1841	1,802,547	86		1841	7,640	4,558
	1842	441,084	27		1842	4,790	990
	1843	1,229,515	919		1843	2,452	5,379
	1844	15,796	2,845		1844	2	
	1845	5,641	2,579,497		1845		
Coffee.....	1840	587,353	51,151	Saltpetre and cubic nitre.....	1840	146,928	139,683
	1841	1,754,535	2,066		1841	154,824	117,170
	1842	2,189,839	606,819		1842	185,636	136,979
	1843	6,184,449	3,229,303		1843	276,160	140,641
	1844	8,093,639	5,046,729		1844	142,271	165,971
	1845	13,229,367	34,293,190		1845	172,843	
Copper ore	1840	12,813	1	Sarsaparilla	1840	14,509	16,262
	1841	14,230			1841	6,352	9,878
	1842	15,345	4,667		1842	56,511	15,837
	1843	21,794	20,872		1843	48,642	23,918
	1844	21,470	21,361		1844	15,004	33,529
	1845				1845	27,952	
Copper, unwrought and part wrought..	1840	3,362	4	Skins and furs undressed, viz.: deer.....	1840	72	7
	1841	7,651	4		1841	53,729	14,514
	1842	3,351	4		1842	1,639	7,220
	1843	1,972	2		1843	8,514	22,978
	1844	25,169	84		1844	6,058	30,898
	1845	688	145		1845	11,700	
Guano	1840			Nutrea.....	1840	196,811	213,726
	1841	2,831	952		1841	1,119,565	907,403
	1842	20,398	9,696		1842	820,376	647,466
	1843	2,827	12,428		1843	818,649	535,426
	1844	26,218	26,123		1844	20,909	185,202
	1845				1845	106,673	
Hair, horse.....	1840	6,943	7,285	Sheep.....	1840	16,052	24,895
	1841	21,096	16,171		1841	490,743	422,106
	1842	8,892	9,546		1842	119,250	60,096
	1843	12,011	10,772		1843	248,252	179,162
	1844	5,320	6,499		1844	65,447	205,171
	1845				1845		
Hides, untanned.	1840	216,273	196,955	Sugar unrefined.	1840	1,683	1
	1841	401,136	365,075		1841	1,445	7
	1842	401,731	368,704		1842	19	1
	1843	278,256	283,223		1843	761	1
	1844	264,727	273,255		1844	697	14
	1845	254,039			1845	6,890	4,856,604
Horns, horntips, and pieces of horns	1840	4,745	3,971	Tallow.....	1840	62,723	62,862
	1841	14,200	11,003		1841	206,375	184,689
	1842	5,971	5,902		1842	113,866	132,743
	1843	7,036	6,795		1843	103,603	81,599
	1844	8,130	8,563		1844	101,301	112,490
	1845				1845	110,800	1,191,896
Jalap	1840	22,300	24,535	Tin.....	1840	793	1
	1841	8,742	13,618		1841	347	3
	1842	59,566	21,126		1842	421	
	1843	37,363	34,312		1843	548	43
	1844	34,957	32,328		1844		65
	1845				1845	235	8,704

(continued.)

ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.	ARTICLES.	Years.	Imported.	Entered for Home Consumption.
		lbs.	lbs.			tons.	tons.
Tobacco, unmanufactured	1840	786,097	180,915	Mahogany	1840	477	320
	1841	719,478	390,323		1841	613	558
	1842	264,471	524,991		1842	872	99
	1843	1,556,210	635,399		1843	1,231	856
	1844	421,323	775,876		1844	1	404
	1845	472,542	25,917,100		1845	1,030	
Tobacco, manufactured, or cigars	1840	164	167	Nicaragua.....	1840	2,782	2,507
	1841	1,426	648		1841	1,302	1,804
	1842	289	242		1842	2,008	2,327
	1843	6,263	143		1843	2,518	2,451
	1844	121	121		1844	4,542	3,465
	1845	1,063	245,059		1845		
Woods, viz.: Fustic.....	1840	4,895	4,137	Wool, cotton	1840	3,148,643	2,845,628
	1841	4,221	3,087		1841	4,493,864	3,654,788
	1842	5,458	4,912		1842	3,854,418	3,410,381
	1843	6,656	5,420		1843	2,644,747	2,947,517
	1844	4,216	4,152		1844	4,896,904	4,274,277
	1845	4,371			1845	640,585	
Logwood	1840	9,854	8,092	Wool, sheep and lambs'	1840	4,380,751	4,016,342
	1841	12,094	8,760		1841	9,173,931	6,605,243
	1842	10,151	8,108		1842	3,203,219	3,434,312
	1843	10,747	9,856		1843	4,562,987	3,467,868
	1844	8,760	8,471		1844	3,789,697	4,590,582
	1845	7,042			1845	6,354,127	

CHAPTER II.

STATISTICS OF THE PRECIOUS METALS AND COINAGE OF THE SPANISH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

BEFORE Humboldt wrote his "Political Essay upon New Spain," the reports circulated respecting the quantities of gold and silver exported from America all differed in their calculations. These discrepancies arose from their not possessing accurate data.

AUTHORS.	Epochs.	Value.	AUTHORS.	Epochs.	Value.
		dollars.			dollars.
Ustariz.....	1492 to 1724	3,536,000,000	Neckar.....	1763 to 1777	304,000,000
Solorzano.....	1492 to 1628	1,500,000,000	Gerboux.....	1724 to 1800	1,600,000,000
Moncada.....	1492 to 1595	2,000,000,000	The author of the "Investigation upon Commerce, Amsterdam, 1779."		
Navarette.....	1519 to 1617	1,536,000,000			
Raynal.....	1492 to 1718	5,154,000,000		1492 to 1775	5,072,000,000
Robertson.....	1492 to 1775	8,000,000,000			

According to Humboldt, the quantity of precious metals taken out of the mines of America is as follows:

From 1492 to 1500.....	marks.	250,000	From 1600 to 1700.....	marks.	16,000,000
" 1500 to 1545.....		3,000,000	" 1700 to 1750.....		22,500,000
" 1545 to 1600.....		11,000,000	" 1750 to 1803.....		35,300,000

He also gives the following recapitulation of the value of gold and silver taken from the mines of America from 1492 to 1803:

Registered from the Spanish colonies.....	dollars.	4,035,156,000
" " Portuguese ditto.....		684,544,000
Not registered from the first.....		816,000,000
" " second.....		171,000,000
Total.....		5,706,700,000

Of which Amount, during those 311 years the proportions furnished were as follows:

New Spain.....	dollars.	2,028,000,000	Chili.....	dollars.	138,900,000
Peru and Buenos Ayres.....		2,410,300,000	Brazils..		835,530,000
New Granada.....		275,000,000			

He computes the annual product of the mines of the New World, at the commencement of the present century, as follows :

C O U N T R I E S.	Value.	Value.	Value.
	marks of gold.	marks of silver.	dollars.
New Spain.....	7,000	2,338,220	23,000,000
Peru.....	3,400	611,090	6,240,000
Chili.....	12,212	28,700	2,060,000
Buenos Ayres.....	2,200	481,830	4,850,000
New Granada.....	20,500		2,990,000
Brazil.....	29,900		4,369,000
Total.....	75,212	3,459,840	43,500,000

He calculated that the annual product of the European mines of Hungary, Saxony, and other places, and that of northern Asia, during the same period, amounted to nearly 5,000,000 more.

It is stated in an article on the precious metals in *Hunt's Merchant's Magazine* :

"The quantities of gold which America yielded at the commencement of this century, was, to the quantity of silver, in the proportion of one to forty-six; and in Europe, the proportion between gold and silver was as one to forty. The value of gold and silver, of equal quantities, was then in the proportion of fifteen to fifteen and a half of the latter, to one of the former. Finally, the quantity of gold produced, has augmented, in comparison, to the quantity of silver.

"From 1800 to 1810, the product of the American mines had a considerable increase, but, during the latter year, the contest commenced which resulted in the complete separation of the colonies from the mother country; and the convulsions and want of security caused by the struggle, likewise the proscription of the old Spanish families, the principal proprietors of the mines, who fled with the relics of their fortune to Spain, Cuba, Bordeaux, and other parts of the south of France; caused the abandonment of several mines, and a very extraordinary diminution in the amount of their product. We have not the means to calculate with precision the exact extent of this decadence."

According to Mr. Ward, in Mexico, from the year 1811 to 1828, the average of the coined metals was only 10,000,000 dollars a year; while, in 1810, it had risen to 26,500,000 dollars.

Mr. Jacob computed the total product of the American mines, including those of Brazil, during the twenty years terminating in 1829, at 379,937,731 dollars, or 18,996,845 dollars yearly; which is considerably less than half the amount which was produced at the beginning of this century.

Storch, in correcting the calculations of Humboldt, computes that the circulation of metals in Europe, which in 1815 amounted to 1,320,000,000, in 1830, was increased to 1,600,000,000; being, in a great measure, on account of England withdrawing her paper money, and resuming cash payments; and likewise through Russia, Austria, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the United States, having followed her example; besides the consumption of gold and silver, wrought up into plate, jewels, and other artificial objects, having considerably augmented.

Mr. Jacob estimates the value of the precious metals which are annually destined for ornaments of luxury (*objets de luxe*), as follows:

Great Britain.....	£ 2,457,221
France.....	1,200,000
Switzerland.....	350,000
The rest of Europe.....	1,605,499
And that which is calculated for the same objects in America,.....	287,280
Total.....	5,900,000

We consider this computation little more than conjecture.

M. Chabrol calculates that the annual consumption of gold and silver in Paris, for the use of works of art, amounts to 14,552,000 francs, or 582,480*l.* sterling a year; this corresponds with the calculation of M. Benoiston de Chateauneuf: both parties agreeing that the consumption of precious metals in Paris, in objects of art, is double that of the rest of France; the consumption of the whole kingdom being 21,825,000 francs, or 873,000*l.*;—that is to say 327,000*l.* sterling a year less than the calculation of Mr. Jacob.

Mr. M'Culloch estimates the consumption of the precious metals in works of art, as follows:

Great Britain.....	£ 1,842,916
France.....	866,190
Switzerland.....	355,000
The rest of Europe.....	1,204,118
America.....	300,000
Total.....	4,568,224

This computation is probably still too high. According to Humboldt, the total consumption of precious metals in Europe, for other objects besides that of coinage, amounts to 17,436,400 dollars; and, adding to this amount 1,411,764 dollars, fifty-five cents, for the consumption of America, the total sum would be 18,848,164 dollars, which is 2,821,889 dollars less than the calculation of M'Culloch, and no less than 8,919,641 dollars under that of Mr. Jacob. We, however, consider all these estimates based on vague data.

A London periodical, the *Mining Journal*, estimates that, "In forty years, from 1790 to 1830, Mexico produced 6,436,453*l.* worth of gold, and 139,817,032*l.* of silver; Chile, 2,768,488*l.* of gold, and 1,822,924*l.* of silver; Buenos Ayres, 4,024,895*l.* of gold, and 27,182,673*l.* of silver; Russia, 3,703,743*l.* of gold, and 1,500,971*l.* of silver. Total, 187,257,179*l.* sterling, or 4,680,429*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.*, per annum."

Produce of the Gold Mines in the Ural Mountains and in Siberia, derived from official sources.

Of the total quantity of gold extracted in 1846 from the mines belonging to the crown, and to private individuals situate in the Ural Mountains and in Siberia, the Royal Mint received 1397 poods, 15 lbs., and 13 solotnicks; and during the course of the winter about 325 poods, 14 lbs., and 74 solotnicks more are expected to be transmitted to the mint, which will make the total produce of the mines for the year 1846, amount to 1722 poods, 29 lbs., and 87 solotnicks.

Formerly the gold was sought for only in the neighbourhood of the mines of Katherineburg, belonging to the crown; in the mines of Bérézoff; and in the country adjacent to the mines of Kolyvano, Voskresseusk, and of Nertchinsk. This gold was extracted from the silver which the mines produced, but the total quantity did not amount annually to more than from 34 to 40 poods' weight.

In the year 1819 beds of auriferous sand were discovered in the Ural mountains. The following table shows the quantity of gold extracted in the year 1819 to 1828, inclusive:

Y E A R S.	Quantity.	Weight.	Solotnicks.
	poods.	lbs.	number.
1819.....	40	9	55
1820.....	44	3	
1821.....	52	24	85
1822.....	79	21	36
1823.....	125	19	79
1824.....	228	13	38
1825.....	257	12	54
1826.....	257	25	15
1827.....	307	30	95
1828.....	317	39	44
Total.....	1711		21

In 1829 the discovery was made of the beds of auriferous sand in Siberia. In the first instance the produce was but small, but subsequently, and more particularly during the last six years, the results were brilliantly successful, as may be seen by the following table :

Y E A R S.	Quantity.	Weight.	Solotnicks.
	poods.	lbs.	number.
1829.....	314	31	1
1830.....	378	15	79
1831.....	396	29	37
1832.....	410	8	61
1833.....	408	22	71
1834.....	406	4	64
1835.....	413	1	8
1836.....	426	3	74
1837.....	469	20	75
1838.....	524	36	69
1839.....	525	6	38
1840.....	585	15	60
1841.....	681	20	34
1842.....	950	26	68
1843.....	1,283	2	60
1844.....	1,341	25	60
1845.....	1,386	6	41
1846.....	1,722	29	87
Total.....	12,624	28	24

Since the discovery of the beds of auriferous sand, namely, since the year 1819, the total quantity of gold extracted from the Ural mountains, as well as from Siberia, amounts to 14,335, poods, 28 lbs., and 45 solotnicks, of which quantity 2924 poods, 24 lbs., and 32 solotnicks was produced from the crown mines in the Ural mountains ; 1293 poods, 7 lbs., 28 solotnicks from those in Siberia ; and 4219 poods, 39 lbs., 79 solotnicks from the mines belonging to private individuals in the Ural mountains, and 5897 poods, 37 lbs., 11 solotnicks from those in Siberia.

The produce of the gold mines in the year 1846, which amounted, as before stated, to 1722 poods, 29 lbs., 87 solotnicks, forms *more than a tenth part of the total quantity of gold extracted, since the year 1819, from all the mines in Russia*, and exceeds by 336 poods, 23 lbs., 46 solotnicks the total quantity for the year 1845.

See Statistics of the Coinage, &c. Vol. II. p. 1174, for an account of the gold mines and coinage of the United States.

The following statements are condensed from the official returns received by her majesty's government from Mexico and South America.

COINAGE of Mexico.

Y E A R S.	G O L D.	S I L V E R.	T O T A L.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Ten years, 1801-10.....	11,020,000	216,220,000	227,240,000
„ 1811-20.....	6,030,000	106,130,000	112,160,000
„ 1821-30.....	3,680,000	96,080,000	99,760,000
1831.....	no returns.	11,720,000	
1832-33.....	do.	no returns.	
1834.....	210,000	11,830,000	12,040,000
1835.....	350,000	11,650,000	12,000,000
1836.....	570,000	11,480,000	12,050,000
1837.....	380,000	11,230,000	11,610,000

COINAGE at the Mexican Mines in 1836 and 1837.

M I N T S.	1836			1837		
	Gold.	Silver.	TOTAL.	Gold.	Silver.	TOTAL.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Mexico.....	20,000	734,000	754,000	10,000	516,000	526,000
Zacatecas.....	none	5,460,000	5,460,000	none	5,238,000	5,238,000
Guanajuato.....	171,000	2,341,000	2,512,000	151,000	2,857,000	3,008,000
Potosi.....	none	1,099,000	1,099,000	none	1,111,000	1,111,000
Durango.....	359,000	1,063,000	1,422,000	207,000	721,000	928,000
Guadalajara.....	23,000	561,000	584,000	13,000	567,000	580,000
Chihuahua.....	none	224,000	224,000	none	225,000	225,000
Total.....	573,000 £114,600	11,482,000 £2,296,000	12,055,000 £2,411,000	381,000 £76,200	11,235,000 £2,245,000	11,616,000 £2,322,320

STATEMENT of the Value of Copper Money coined at the Mint of the City of Mexico, from the 1st of January, 1829, to the Cessation of that Coinage on the 18th of January, 1837.

P E R I O D S.	Total Nominal Value.	P E R I O D S.	Total Nominal Value.
	dollars.		dollars.
Year ending 31st of December, 1829..	123,362½	Total brought forward.....	1,678,762½
" 30th of June, 1831.....	256,000	Year ending 30th of June, 1835.....	1,005,500
" " 1832.....	180,000	" " 1836.....	1,152,200
" " 1833.....	491,300	From " 1st July, 1836, to 18th Jan., 1837	875,572
" " 1834.....	628,100	Total dollars	4,712,034½
Total carried forward.....	1,678,762½	" at par (48d. per dollar)....	942,407

NOTE.—The copper coins are Cuartillas, of which 32 are equal to 1 dollar, and Tiacos, of which 64 are equal to 1 dollar. The weight of 100 dollars, 20s. sterling, nominal value in copper coin, is about 49 lbs. Spanish, or nearly 51 lbs. avoirdupois, the real average value of which is considered to be under 29 dollars, or 5l. 16s., including an allowance for coining.

COMPARISON of the Coinage in Gold and Silver of the Mints of the Mexican Republic, in the Years 1840 and 1841.

M I N T.	G O L D.		S I L V E R.	T O T A L 1841.
	Year.	Amount.	Amount.	Amount.
		dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Mexico.....	1840	71,207	1,917,617	
"	1841	97,628	2,151,496	2,249,124
Zacatecas.....	1840		4,066,310	
"	1841		4,386,641	4,386,641
Guanaxuato.....	1840	437,168	3,459,500	
"	1841	440,240	3,296,000	3,736,240
Durango.....	1840	243,082	747,907	
"	1841	135,140	823,348	978,488
Chihuahua.....	1840		172,406	
"	1841	63,050	359,000	422,050
San Luis.....	1840		1,137,867	
"	1841		1,110,247	1,110,247
Guadalaxara.....	1840		881,546	
"	1841		655,015	655,015
Total coinage 1841..				13,537,805

Increase for 1841, 403,195 dollars.

Value of total coinage for 1841, at 48d. per dollar.....£2,707,561

Ditto of increase on the year ditto 80,639

RETURN of the Amount, in Dollars, of the Precious Metals Coined in Bolivia during the Eight Years ending the 31st of December, 1837.

Y E A R S.	G O L D.	S I L V E R.		Total each Year.
		In Dollars of 8 Reals.	Small Coinage of Half Reals, 1, 2 and 4 Reals.	
	dollars.	dollars cts.	dollars cts.	dollars cts.
1830.....		1,662,196 75		1,662,196 75
1831.....		1,874,121 0		1,874,121 0
1832.....		2,038,041 25		2,038,041 25
1833.....		1,885,645 25		1,885,645 25
1834.....		2,104,605 50		2,104,605 50
1835.....	184,204	1,474,598 0	679,755 1	2,338,557 10
1836.....	82,920	1,647,664 0	404,811 1	2,135,395 0
1837.....	180,126	1,772,201 0	402,695 0	2,361,022 0
Total.....				16,399,583 85 £3,279,916 15s.

NOTE.—The first coinage of small money commenced in 1835; it contains from 33 to 36 per cent of alloy, and is exclusively used for the interior circulation of Bolivia and of the neighbouring provinces of North and South Peru. The Bolivian dollar contains the same proportion of pure silver as the old Spanish dollar, and the small money only 66 per cent of that metal.

La Paz, July 1, 1838.

(signed)

J. B. PENTLAND.

Pure or refined silver contains 12 dwts., and the standard for coinage in Bolivia is 10 dwts. 20 grains; consequently standard silver contains 260 parts of pure silver and 28 parts of alloy.

Since the year 1830, however, all the silver coins issued from the Mint of Potosi, with the exception of dollars, have been of the standard of 8 dwts., about 26 per cent less than the national standard; and although the annual issue of this small and base coin is nominally restricted to 200,000 dollars, equal to 40,000*l.*, this regulation is not always adhered to; thus, in 1835 its issue amounted to 509,090 dollars 4 cents, equal to 101,818*l.* 2s.; in 1836 to 303,186 dollars 4 cents, equal to 606,37*l.* 6s.; and in 1837 to 301,563 dollars, equal to 60,312*l.* 12s.

Her Majesty's Legation, Lima, April 18, 1838.

(signed)

BELFORD HINTON WILSON.

STATEMENT of Metals bought and coined in the Mint of Popayan, in Columbia, from the Year 1790 to that of 1829.

	Value bought in gold.			Value bought in silver.			Gold coined.					Silver coined.				
	dollars.	rls.	mara.	dollars.	rls.	mara.	marcos.	*oz.	och.	tom.	grs.	marcos.	oz.	och.	tom.	grs.
Total for 40 years.	27,593,792	4	20	184,035	3	9	210,762	0	0	2	5	22,063	0	0	5	9

* The denominations after marcos (marks) follow in this order: onzas, ochavas, tomines, grains.

Office of the Mint at Popayan, 23rd of January, 1834. JOSE J. CARBAJAL.

NOTE.—Of the 184,035 dollars, value of silver coined, two-thirds were in old silver.

All the rest of the silver after 1810, and nearly all before, was the produce of plate and old coin sold to the mint. Very little silver was ever sent from the mines to Popayan before 1810, and none after; nor do the sums enumerated as having been coined there during the whole period, include the annual 2,000 dollars stated in the Note in the Bogota Tables to have been extracted from gold, as the gold produced by the mines, whose produce was sent to Popayan, contained no silver. Nearly the whole, therefore, of the silver bought and coined by the mint of Popayan, was the produce of plate ornaments and old money sold.—W. T.

Colombian Measures of Gold and Silver.

1 Marco	5 lb. Spanish	8 oz.	1 Mark
1 lb. Spanish	16 oz. Spanish, or 100 Castellanos.	8 Ochavas	1 oz.
8 Tomines	1 Castellano.	6 Tomines	1 Ochava
1 oz. Spanish	444 grains English.	12 Grains	1 Tomia
1 oz. Troy	480 grains English.		

Of a mark of gold are coined 136 dollars, in conformity with the Colombian law of 1821.

The Spanish Ordenanza enacted that 8½ dollars should be coined from a mark of silver of 11 dineros of fineness.—W. T.

RETURN of the Amount in Dollars of the precious Metals coined at the Mint of the Republic of South Peru, since its Establishment in 1824.

YEARS.	GOLD.	SILVER.		Total amount of each year.
		In dollars of 8 reals.	Small money of half reals, 1, 2, and 4 reals.	
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
1824.....	..	310,515	..	310,515
1825.....	..	239,024	..	239,024
1826.....	290,010	493,950	..	783,960
1827.....	36,590	262,832	..	299,422
1828.....	53,656	321,154	..	374,810
1829.....	..	215,312	..	215,312
1830.....	165,436	364,864	..	530,300
1831.....	86,833	534,845	..	621,678
1832.....	753,228	552,614	..	1,305,842
1833.....	80,826	427,134	..	507,960
1834.....	48,193	353,732	..	401,925
1835.....	67,855	} 22,585	..	1,068,122
1836.....	38,665		1,045,537	
1837.....	113,302		..	
				6,658,870
				£1,331,774 0 0

Sterling.....

The coinage of small money commenced in 1835; it contains 66 per cent of pure silver, and circulates only in the territory of the Peru Bolivian Confederacy.

La Paz, 1st of July, 1838.

(Signed)

J. B. PENTLAND.

STATEMENT of the Value of Gold and Silver which has been coined in Bogota, in the Years herein expressed.

YEARS.	VALUE IN DOLLARS.		YEARS.	VALUE IN DOLLARS.	
	Coined in gold in Bogota.	Coined in silver in Bogota.		Coined in gold in Bogota.	Coined in silver in Bogota.
	dollars.	dollars. rials.		dollars.	dollars. rials.
1790—1791.....	2,157,040	2,119 5	Brought forward.....	28,220,024	146,405 7
1792—1793.....	2,290,176	12,212 5½	1812—1813.....	2,296,992	19,688 0
1794—1795.....	2,614,944	15,603 4½	1814—1815.....	2,344,704	65,315 0
1796—1797.....	2,515,104	25,721 5¾	1816—1817.....	1,997,088	40,167 0
1798—1799.....	2,931,880	22,221 4	1818—1819.....	1,826,688	31,863 0½
1800—1801.....	2,992,224	17,069 0	1820—1821.....	2,712,768	84,716 0
1802—1803.....	2,433,312	15,898 0	1822—1823.....	2,068,714	49,352 0
1804—1805.....	2,740,032	8,149 3	1824—1825.....	1,397,168	30,641 0
1806—1807.....	2,774,112	3,014 0	1826—1827.....	2,071,992	93,350 0
1808—1809.....	2,556,000	14,552 0	1828—1829.....	1,438,160	96,500 0
1810—1811.....	2,215,200	9,844 2½			
Carried forward.....	28,220,024	146,405 7	Total.....	46,374,298	657,997 7½

This is an exact statement from the books of the mint, Bogota, December 21, 1830.

STATEMENT of the Value of Gold and Silver bought in Bogota, in the Years herein expressed.

YEARS.	VALUE IN DOLLARS.		YEARS.	VALUE IN DOLLARS.	
	Value bought in gold in Bogota.	Value bought in silver in Bogota.		Value bought in gold in Bogota.	Value bought in silver in Bogota.
	dollars rials.	dollars. rials.		dollars. rials.	dollars rials.
1790—1791.....	1,984,228 2½		Brought forward.....	25,359,497 3½	102,126 5½
1792—1793.....	2,049,741 4½	11,267 3	1812—1813.....	2,090,126 0½	1,170 4
1794—1795.....	2,040,667 5½	11,790 1	1814—1815.....	2,173,157 1½	11,997 2
1796—1797.....	2,316,398 1½	11,873 5½	1816—1817.....	1,795,323 0½	39,584 3
1798—1799.....	2,608,418 6½	27,788 5½	1818—1819.....	1,622,837 2½	6,337 7½
1800—1801.....	2,719,974 0½	16,563 1½	1820—1821.....	2,540,892 3½	41,346 7½
1802—1803.....	2,243,932 6½		1822—1823.....	1,846,373 6½	28,599 4½
1804—1805.....	2,510,506 6	1,772 4½	1824—1825.....	1,358,480 6½	43,193 3½
1806—1807.....	2,476,429 4½	1,770 6½	1826—1827.....	1,827,525 0	62,392 1½
1808—1809.....	2,403,535 6½	1,684 1½	1828—1829.....	1,331,964 1½	23,545 7½
1810—1811.....	2,005,663 7½	17,616 0½			
Carried forward.....	25,359,497 3½	102,126 5½	Total.....	41,946,178 1½	360,294 6½

This is an exact statement from the books of the mint of Bogota, December 21, 1830.

RETURN (corrected) of the Number of Marcs of Gold coined at the Mint of Lima between the Years 1790 and 1819, both inclusive.—(Transmitted in Despatch of 13th April 1841.)

YEARS.	Marcs of Eight Ounces.	Dollars at 144 Dollars 4 Rials per Coined Marc.	Pounds Sterling.	YEARS.	Marcs of Eight Ounces.	Dollars at 144 Dollars 4 Rials per Coined Marc.	Pounds Sterling.
	marcs.	dlrs. rs.	£ s.		marcs.	dlrs. rs.	£ s.
1790.....	4,063	587,103 4	117,420 14	Br. forward..	58,808	8,497,756 0	1,699,551 4
1791.....	4,926	711,807 0	142,361 8	1805.....	2,937	424,396 4	84,879 6
1792.....	5,109	738,250 4	147,650 2	1806.....	1,602	231,489 0	46,297 16
1793.....	4,756	687,242 0	137,448 8	1807.....	2,834	409,513 0	81,902 12
1794.....	5,763	832,753 4	166,550 14	1808.....	2,698	389,861 0	77,972 4
1795.....	4,856	701,692 0	140,338 8	1809.....	2,502	361,539 0	72,307 16
1796.....	4,626	668,457 0	133,691 8	1810.....	2,524	364,718 0	72,943 12
1797.....	4,288	619,616 0	123,923 4	1811.....	2,495	360,527 4	72,105 10
1798.....	3,936	568,752 0	113,750 8	1812.....	3,980	575,110 0	115,022 0
1799.....	3,646	526,847 0	105,369 8	1813.....	4,728	683,196 0	136,639 4
1800.....	2,782	401,999 0	80,399 16	1814.....	5,334	770,763 0	154,152 12
1801.....	2,410	348,245 0	69,649 0	1815.....	3,476	502,282 0	100,456 8
1802.....	2,480	358,360 0	71,672 0	1816.....	5,344	772,208 0	154,441 12
1803.....	2,575	372,087 4	74,417 10	1817.....	5,388	778,566 0	155,713 4
1804.....	2,592	374,544 0	74,908 16	1818.....	3,266	471,937 0	94,387 8
				1819.....	3,580	517,310 0	103,462 0
Carried forward.	58,808	8,497,756 0	1,699,551 4	Total...	111,496	16,111,172 0	3,222,234 8

N.B.—Exchange, forty-eight pence per dollar.

lars 4 reals, equal to 1*l.* 14*s.* The greater proportion therefore of the gold produced in the country is smuggled out of it in the shape of bullion; in that state its exportation being altogether prohibited. The current gold coins of Peru are as follow:—

Exchange at 48 <i>d.</i> per dollar.			
	dlrs. rs.	£ s. d.	dlrs. rs.
Doblon of 8 escudos.....	1 ounce	1 ounce	2 1 equal to 0 8 6
— of 4 ditto.....	8 4 "	Un peso de Oro.....	1 1 "
— of 2 ditto.....	4 2 "		0 4 3

A marc of gold, according to Castilian weight contains eight ounces (3550*g* grains troy), each ounce eight ochavas, each ochava two adarmes, each adarme (27 738-1000 grains troy) three tomines, and each tomin twelve granos. But as a marc of gold, when coined, produces eight coins of eight escudos each, or seventeen dollars, equal to 3*l.* 8*s.*, and one coin of four escudos, or 8 dlrs. 4 rs., equal to 1*l.* 14*s.*, each of the eight coins should weigh 15 1-17 adarmes, equal to 17 dwts. 9 12-17 grains troy, or 417 12-17 grains; and the remaining coin 7 18-34 adarmes, equal to 8 dwts. 16 29-34 grains, or 208 29-34 grains troy; thereby occasioning a profit to the mint of a doblon of four escudos, equal to 8 dollars 4 rs., equal to 1*l.* 14*s.* on each mark of gold there coined. The same proportion, with the difference of value between the two metals, is observed in the coinage of silver. But in the gold coinage a variation or feble, in the following proportion is permitted; on a marc of gold 6 grains, on an ounce of gold 1 1/2 grains, on 1/2 an ounce 1 grain, on the four, two, and one dollar pieces 1/4 of a grain each.—Lima, July 20, 1836.

RETURN of the Number of Marcs of Silver, of Eight Ounces, reduced to Bars at the different Smelting Houses of Peru, herein specified, during the Years 1790 to 1819, both inclusive, so far as it has been possible to procure the same.

	Lima.	Truxillo.	Pasco.	Huamanga.	Arequipa.	Tacna.	Puno.	Total in Marcs.	Total in Dollars, at 8 1/2 Dollars per Marc.	Total in Pounds Sterling, at 5 Dollars per Pound.
	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	marcs oz.	dollars rs.	£ s. d.
1790.....	80,580 0	119,285 0	177,996 6	14,783 0	40,940 0	38,539 4	37,309 3	449,433 5	3,820,185 6 1/2	764,037 3 3
1791.....	85,264 3	105,387 2	123,789 0	19,727 0	39,454 5	24,532 5	38,364 2	436,539 1	3,710,582 4 1/2	742,116 10 3
1792.....	106,951 1	134,083 4	183,598 6	21,470 5	41,262 1	27,960 5	43,875 0	559,206 6	4,753,257 3	950,651 9 6
1793.....	111,315 1	72,904 6	234,942 5	20,101 1	34,808 0	27,256 7	40,730 3	542,058 7	4,607,500 3 1/2	921,500 1 9
1794.....	104,551 0	86,876 1	291,253 7	22,997 0	68,440 3	27,761 1	41,122 6	615,241 1	5,229,549 4 1/2	1,045,909 18 3
1795.....	84,981 6	79,319 4	279,621 7	15,361 4	32,183 6	27,761 1	39,560 0	558,789 4	4,749,710 6	949,942 3 0
1796.....	98,225 5	78,997 5	277,553 1	17,847 4	71,438 1	27,761 1	43,310 4	587,372 4	4,992,666 2	99,853 5 0
1797.....	77,208 0	67,789 3	242,948 7	13,495 6	70,172 5	27,761 1	45,997 5	517,612 2	4,399,704 1	879,940 16 6
1798.....	71,276 0	67,461 4	271,861 3	19,375 0	17,065 4	27,761 1	51,790 3	537,282 6	4,566,903 3	913,380 13 6
1799.....	107,470 2	103,032 4	228,356 4	28,485 2	23,465 0	27,761 1	33,998 6	583,696 2	4,961,418 1	992,283 12 6
1800.....	62,927 4	81,290 6	281,481 4	6,914 6	66,207 2	27,761 1	40,706 2	569,111 4	4,837,447 6	967,489 11 0
1801.....	85,189 0	70,697 0	237,435 4	15,608 4	39,513 4	27,761 1	42,331 0	529,925 2	4,504,364 5	900,872 18 6
1802.....	67,857 4	55,754 4	263,906 7	23,005 6	20,984 6	27,761 1	33,712 2	485,501 1	4,126,759 4 1/2	825,351 18 3
1803.....	45,540 4	21,868 0	283,191 1	64,609 0	20,402 0	27,761 1	38,186 0	490,089 5	4,165,761 6 1/2	833,152 7 3
1804.....	62,993 4	86,350 4	320,508 6	19,202 2	25,871 4	27,761 1	41,967 4	570,444 6	4,848,780 3	969,756 1 6
1805.....	58,052 0	35,685 4	306,050 0	16,264 4	32,849 4	27,761 1	52,338 4	516,150 0	4,387,275 0	877,455 0 0
1806.....	65,127 4	71,169 0	161,193 0	2,707 4	33,001 4	27,761 1	34,577 6	385,960 2	3,280,662 1	656,132 8 6
1807.....	55,829 4	22,035 4	142,031 0	14,054 0	6,629 4	27,761 1	46,189 1	294,768 5	2,505,533 2 1/2	501,106 13 0
1808.....	54,260 0	105,369 0	243,295 4	6,556 0	57,107 4	27,761 1	43,983 4	513,751 4	4,366,887 6	873,377 11 0
1809.....	69,968 4	60,690 0	235,731 4	8,580 0	22,636 4	27,761 1	38,744 3	453,991 7	3,858,930 7 1/2	771,786 3 9
1810.....	94,403 0	48,680 0	140,220 1	11,588 0	24,054 0	27,761 1	42,775 7	364,310 0	3,096,035 0	619,327 0 0
1811.....	85,604 4	81,728 4	154,317 0	2,650 4	13,682 7	27,761 1	38,582 7	390,250 2	3,317,127 1	663,425 8 6
1812.....	86,931 0	45,110 0	130,061 4	6,462 0	52,619 0	27,761 1	38,171 4	380,653 4	3,235,554 6	647,110 19 0
1813.....	126,130 0	45,187 0	180,897 0	4,275 4	24,000 0	27,761 1	40,073 1	423,955 5	3,603,622 6 1/2	720,724 11 3
1814.....	55,845 0	24,832 0	192,267 0	7,741 0	4,181 4	27,761 1	25,875 4	314,089 0	2,669,756 4	533,951 6 0
1815.....	93,610 0	36,148 0	156,719 0	3,003 3	39,927 3	27,761 1	17,028 4	350,316 2	2,977,688 1	595,537 12 6
1816.....	90,326 4	38,451 0	175,995 0	6,107 2	35,825 0	27,761 1	39,279 3	388,786 7	3,304,688 3 1/2	660,937 13 9
1817.....	90,375 0	37,520 3	145,209 0		33,488 4	27,761 1	38,205 0	345,832 2	2,939,574 1	587,914 16 6
1818.....	124,784 0	20,379 0	167,523 0	5,819 1	34,553 4	27,761 1	25,392 1	381,383 7	3,241,762 7 1/2	648,352 11 9
1819.....	96,594 0	26,998 0	190,427 0	5,117 2	27,710 1	27,761 1	25,172 7	377,594 7	3,209,556 3 1/2	641,911 5 9
Total....	2,500,171 6	1,931,085 6	6,320,383 1	423,890 0	1,044,475 4	494,301 5	1,159,292 0	13,914,098 6	118,269,846 5	23,653,961 11 3

RETURN (corrected) of the Number of Marcs of Silver, of Eight Ounces, reduced to Bars at the different Smelting Houses of Peru, herein specified, during the Years 1820 to 1834, both inclusive, so far as it has been possible to procure the same.

YEARS.	Lima.	Truxillo.	Pasco.	Ayachuco.	Puno.	Arequipa.	Tacna.	Total in Marcs of Eight Ounces.	Total in Dollars, at 8 dls. 4 rs. per Marc.	Total in Pounds Ster- ling, at 5 dollars per Pound.
1820.....	dlrs. rs. 50,819 0	dlrs. rs. 24,403 0	dlrs. rs. 283,906 0	dlrs. rs. 2,639 0	dlrs. rs. 24,898 5	dlrs. rs. 37,405 4	dlrs. rs. 6,004 2	marcs oz. 430,075 3	dlrs. rs. 3,655,640 5½	£ s. d. 731,128 2 9
1821.....	74,481 3	10,462 7		1,022 0	16,667 5	10,486 0	5,661 5	118,781 4	1,009,642 6	201,928 11 0
1822.....	64,470 3	17,983 2		2,213 1	14,689 1	2,040 0	2,785 1	104,181 0	885,538 4	177,107 14 0
1823.....		17,237 6		2,148 2	14,960 7	413 7		34,760 6	295,466 3	59,093 5 6
1824.....		43,263 6		8,341 7	11,629 7	3,203 7	2,028 1	68,467 4	581,973 6	116,394 15 0
1825.....	21,010 3	4,956 1	56,971 6		8,400 0	15,237 2	3,493 0	110,068 4	935,582 2	187,116 9 0
1826.....	23,361 3	16,108 3	163,852 0	3,170 1	16,658 0	28,368 3	805 6	252,324 0	2,144,754 0	428,950 16 0
1827.....	15,607 3	11,997 3	221,707 0	2,922 2	21,999 3	11,671 4	119 5	286,024 4	2,431,208 2	486,241 13 0
1828.....	7,400 3	5,395 5	201,330 0	1,841 3	22,931 4	7,370 3	4,270 7	250,540 1	2,129,591 0½	425,918 4 3
1829.....	6,453 3	1,760 4	82,031 0	5,634 4	27,327 7	12,973 3	2,720 0	138,900 5	1,180,655 2½	236,131 1 3
1830.....	33,145 7	23,550 5	95,265 0	12,336 0	30,758 6	18,422 5	212 5	213,691 4	1,816,377 6	363,275 11 0
1831.....	34,262 0	18,635 1	135,134 4	9,267 2	38,417 0	14,472 5		250,188 4	2,126,602 2	425,320 9 0
1832.....	34,975 1	26,802 0 *13,862 0	219,378 1	8,776 0	42,130 4	10,628 0		356,551 6	3,030,689 7	606,137 19 6
1833.....	27,974 2	4,752 7 * 4,735 0	257,669 6	5,730 4	32,220 6	7,130 0		340,213 1	2,891,811 4½	578,362 6 3
1834.....	15,821 0	non-smelted *15,267 4	272,558 2	2,417 1	31,379 0	4,362 0		341,804 7	2,905,341 3½	581,068 5 9
Total.....	409,781 7	261,173 6	1,989,803 3	68,459 3	355,068 7	184,185 3	28,101 0	3,296,573 5	28,020,875 6½	5,604,175 3 3

RETURN of the Number of Marcs of Silver coined at the Mints of Peru between the Years 1820 and 1834, both inclusive.

Y E A R S.	Total Amount of Coinage.				Amount Coined at the Mint of Lima.				Amount Coined at the Mint of Cuzco.			
	Marcs.	Dollars, at 8½ dollars per Marc.	£. Sterling at 5 dollars per £.	£ s. d.	Marcs.	Dollars, at 8½ dollars per Marc.	£. Sterling at 5 dollars per £.	£ s. d.	Marcs.	Dollars, at 8½ dollars per Marc.	£. Sterling at 5 dollars per £.	£ s. d.
1820.....	469,808 0	3,993,368 0	798,673 12 0	798,673 16 0	469,808 0	3,993,368 0	798,673 16 0	798,673 16 0	No silver coined.			
1821.....	157,957 7	1,342,641 7½	268,528 7 9	268,528 7 9	157,957 7	1,342,641 7½	268,528 7 9	268,528 7 9				
1822.....	193,200 0	1,642,200 0	328,440 0 0	328,440 0 0	193,200 0	1,642,200 0	328,440 0 0	328,440 0 0				
1823.....	60,000 0	510,000 0	102,000 0 0	102,000 0 0	60,000 0	510,000 0	102,000 0 0	102,000 0 0				
1824.....	37,300 0	317,050 0	63,410 0 0	63,410 0 0	37,300 0	317,050 0	63,410 0 0	63,410 0 0				
1825.....	95,699 1	813,442 4½	162,688 10 3	162,688 10 3	95,699 1	813,442 4½	162,688 10 3	162,688 10 3				
1826.....	275,039 0	2,337,831 4	467,566 6 0	467,566 6 0	275,039 0	2,337,831 4	467,566 6 0	467,566 6 0				
1827.....	348,856 0	2,965,276 0	592,055 4 0	592,055 4 0	348,856 0	2,965,276 0	592,055 4 0	592,055 4 0				
1828.....	301,703 0	2,564,475 4	512,895 2 0	512,895 2 0	301,703 0	2,564,475 4	512,895 2 0	512,895 2 0				
1829.....	165,428 0	1,406,138 0	281,227 12 0	281,227 12 0	165,428 0	1,406,138 0	281,227 12 0	281,227 12 0				
1830.....	236,335 0	4,008,847 4	401,769 10 0	401,769 10 0	236,335 0	4,008,847 4	401,769 10 0	401,769 10 0				
1831.....	280,609 0	2,385,951 4	477,188 6 0	477,188 6 0	280,609 0	2,385,951 4	477,188 6 0	477,188 6 0				
1832.....	377,576 0	3,209,396 0	641,879 4 0	641,879 4 0	377,576 0	3,209,396 0	641,879 4 0	641,879 4 0				
1833.....	351,745 0	2,989,832 4	597,966 10 0	597,966 10 0	351,745 0	2,989,832 4	597,966 10 0	597,966 10 0				
1834.....	370,598 0	3,150,083 0	630,016 12 0	630,016 12 0	370,598 0	3,150,083 0	630,016 12 0	630,016 12 0				
Total.....	3,721,944 0	33,636,534 0	6,327,304 16 0	6,327,304 16 0	3,721,944 0	33,636,534 0	6,327,304 16 0	6,327,304 16 0				

RETURN of the Number of Marcs of Silver coined in Peru in each Year, during the Quinquennium ending the 31st of December, 1839, distinguishing the Mints whereat they have been coined. Exchange 48d. per Dollar.

Y E A R S.	Amount coined at the Mint of Lima.				Amount coined at the Mint of Cuzco.				Amount coined at the Mint of Arequipa.				Total Amount of Coinage.			
	Marcs of 8 Ounces.	Dollars at 8 dlrs. 4 rs. per coined Marc.	Pounds Sterling.	£	Marcs of 8 Ounces.	Dollars at 8 dlrs. 4 rs. per coined Dollar.	Pounds Sterling.	£	Marcs of 8 Ounces.	Dollars at 8 dlrs. 4 rs. per coined Marc.	Pounds Sterling.	£	Marcs of 8 Ounces.	Dollars at 8 dlrs. 4 rs. per coined Marc.	Pounds Sterling.	£
1835.....	306,300	2,603,550	520,710	520,710	32,467	275,969 4	55,193 18	55,193 18					338,767	2,879,519 4	575,903 18	575,903 18
1836.....	310,250	2,637,125	527,425	527,425	46,669	396,686 4	79,337 6	79,337 6					356,919	3,033,811 4	606,762 6	606,762 6
1837.....	262,250	2,229,125	445,825	445,825	39,384	334,764 0	66,952 16	66,952 16					301,634	2,563,889 0	512,777 16	512,777 16
1838.....	239,850	2,038,725	407,745	407,745	30,116	255,986 0	51,197 4	51,197 4	17,292	146,982	29,396 8	29,396 8	287,258	2,441,693 0	488,338 12	488,338 12
1839.....	282,500	2,401,250	480,250	480,250	41,919	356,311 4	71,262 6	71,262 6	13,068	111,078	22,215 12	22,215 12	337,487	2,868,639 4	573,727 18	573,727 18
Total.....	1,401,150	11,909,775	2,381,955	2,381,955	190,555	1,619,717 4	323,943 10	323,943 10	30,360	238,060	51,612 0	51,612 0	1,622,065	13,787,552 4	2,757,510 10	2,757,510 10

1840 3,104,000, 1841 2,788,800.

EXPORT of Gold, Silver, and Copper Ingots and Ores from the Ports of the Republic of Chili, and of Silver Ingots in Transit, during the Years 1835 to 1841, inclusive.

INGOTS, ORES, &c.	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841
Silver Ingots:—							
Ingots of silver exported from the Custom-house of Valparaiso, paying there the duties	73,322 5½	51,766 3	44,950 0	53,382 4	60,323 2	104,607 4	98,734 0½
From the Custom-house of Serena	37,131 7½	21,134 0	27,464 4	23,152 4	18,087 0	23,317 7	31,743 0½
From the Custom-house of Copiapo	27,166 7½	27,784 0	24,383 0	43,311 4	43,487 0	864 1	7,323 0½
From the Custom-house of Huasco	8,333 1	5,692 0	52,560 6	2,864 2	2,704 6	11,990 4	19,723 4
The Mint has stamped	4,747 5		1,872 0			630 4	8,555 5½
	150,702 2½	106,376 3	161,230 2	122,910 6	193,362 0	141,330 4	140,193 0½
Gold Ingots:—							
Exported from the Custom-house of Valparaiso	7 1½	713 0	738 0	311 6	163 0	393 6	941 3½
Ditto do. of Serena	4 4	10 7	495 0	5 2	9 4	12 9	10 3½
Ditto do. of Huasco			23 6				4 5½
The Mint has stamped	7 0		1,085 0	792 5	264 4	2,830 4	6 9½
	18 1½		2,206 6	1,109 3	439 0	3,947 4	990 7½
Gold and silver coined in the Mint:—							
There has been coined in gold	3,665 5½	3,474 5	2,085 6	4,125 7			
Ditto silver	384 4		508 6	221 1			
	3,950 1½						
Copper in bars:—							
Exported from the Custom-house of Valparaiso, paying there the duties	14,336 8	20,408 0	18,118 58	27,324 13	14,661 0	39,251 5	30,661 27
Exported from the Custom-house of Serena	26,850 0	26,770 0	27,413 40	49,872 79	29,437 0	37,768 51	39,513 0
Ditto do. of Huasco	10,816 12	10,172 39	11,068 92	8,649 63	4,134 0	4,671 10	18,924 94
Ditto do. of Copiapo		1,535 18	842 67	3,690 91	2,041 0	302 54	302 0
	52,002 20	58,885 57	57,433 57	80,537 46	50,203 0	80,063 20	95,331 30
Ores of Copper:—							
Exported from the Custom-house in Valparaiso in copper ores	14,429 78	19,912 51	20,155 1	20,777 63	779 0	10,105 49	9,976 51
Exported from the Custom-house of Serena in copper ores	14,097 0	26,545 0	73,506 85	33,098 50	23,053 0	63,981 77	66,474 40
Exported from the Custom-house of Huasco	80,101 6	85,976 26	71,084 14	147,434 62	147,226 0	139,913 12	194,016 13
Ditto do. of Copiapo	17,540 28	47,269 86	79,679 98	59,955 4	39,233 0	72,458 79	66,560 4
	126,268 8	179,703 63	244,425 98	261,265 79	210,201 0	278,519 17	256,919 7
Gold and Silver in transit:—							
Gold	346 5	736 5	690 3	49 5	3,415 6	3,183 7	3,284 5
Silver in ingots	80,902 3	56,782 2	57,744 4	12,723 5	24,227 3	235 3	

RETURN of the Number of Marcs of Silver smelted at the various Smelting-houses in Peru.

YEARS.	Lima.	Truxillo.	Pasco.	Ayacu- cho.	Puno.	Are- quipa.	Total in Marcs of 8 Ounces.	Total in Dollars, at 8 Dollars 4 rials per Marc.	Total in Pounds ster- ling.
	marcs. oz.	marcs. oz.	marcs. oz.	marcs.	marcs.	mrs. oz.	marcs. oz.	dlrs. rs.	£ s. d.
1835.....	10,955 0	*23,424 0	276,744 0	2,417	20,725	3,673 0	337,938 0	2,872,473 0	574,494 12 0
1836.....	21,509 0	*43,784 0	234,404 0	3,045	22,411	3,795 0	328,948 0	2,796,058 0	559,211 12 0
1837.....	{ 15,137 5 9,027 0 2,082 0 }	{ *55,679 6 2,523 0 }	235,856 4	1,417	18,750	1,417 0	341,889 7	2,906,063 7½	581,212 15 9
1838.....	16,003 5	*26,685 6	{ 248,912 3 *3,019 6 }	2,000	18,000	5,772 6	320,394 1	2,723,350 0½	544,670 0 3
1839.....	31,080 0	*39,753 3	279,260 3	1,500	18,349	7,560 3	377,503 1	3,208,776 4½	641,755 6 3
Total....	105,794 2	191,849 7	1,278,197 0	10,379	98,235	22,218 1	1,706,673 1	14,506,721 4½	2,901,344 6 3

RETURN of the Number of Marcs of Silver coined at the Mint of Lima, between the Years 1790 and 1819, both inclusive.

YEARS.	Marcs of Eight Ounces.	Dollars at 8½ Dollars per Marc.	Pounds ster- ling at 5 Dol- lars per Pound.	YEARS.	Marks of Eight Ounces.	Dollars, at 8½ Dollars per Marc.	Pounds ster- ling, at 5 Dol- lars per Pound.
	marcs. oz.	dlrs. rs.	£ s. d.		marcs. oz.	dlrs. rs.	£ s. d.
1790.....	539,101 3 3-17	4,582,361 7	916,472 7 6	Brought forward.	8,678,608 1	73,767,162 6	14,753,632 11 0
1791.....	513,303 5 15-17	4,363,081 6	872,616 7 0	1806.....	511,528 2 14-17	4,347,991 0	869,598 4 0
1792.....	542,615 7 5-17	4,612,235 2	922,447 1 0	1807.....	443,993 0 14-17	3,773,941 3	754,788 5 6
1793.....	585,054 5 15-17	4,972,965 2	994,593 1 0	1808.....	487,488 4 8-17	4,143,652 6	828,730 11 0
1794.....	624,581 0 14-17	5,308,939 3	1,061,787 17 6	1809.....	510,286 1 13-17	4,337,432 7	867,486 11 6
1795.....	622,167 3 5-17	5,288,423 0	1,057,684 12 0	1810.....	528,550 6 16-17	4,492,682 3	898,536 9 6
1796.....	582,181 5 3-17	4,948,544 0	989,708 16 0	1811.....	530,450 0 0	4,508,825 0	901,765 0 0
1797.....	502,195 1 3-17	4,268,658 6	853,731 15 0	1812.....	457,281 2 16-17	3,886,891 5	777,378 6 6
1798.....	525,650 1 5-17	4,468,102 7	893,620 11 6	1813.....	481,180 6 6-17	4,090,036 6	818,007 7 0
1799.....	608,988 6 6-17	5,175,404 6	1,035,280 19 0	1814.....	426,907 7 3-17	3,628,717 1	725,743 8 6
1800.....	517,496 7 9-17	4,398,724 0	879,744 16 0	1815.....	440,613 6 12-17	3,745,217 5	749,043 10 6
1801.....	532,144 7 9-17	4,523,232 0	904,646 8 0	1816.....	454,931 3 15-17	3,866,917 5	773,383 10 6
1802.....	487,431 1 15-17	4,143,165 4	828,633 2 0	1817.....	398,653 4 6-17	3,388,535 1	677,711 0 6
1803.....	469,408 3 7-17	3,989,971 5	797,994 6 6	1818.....	398,397 7 7-17	3,386,382 3	677,276 9 6
1804.....	510,616 1 7-17	4,340,237 4	868,047 10 0	1819.....	384,788 0 4-17	3,270,698 2	654,139 13 0
1805.....	515,660 4 16-17	4,383,115 2	876,623 1 0	Total..	15,133,659 2 16-17	128,636,104 5	25,727,220 18 6
Carried forward..	8,678,608 1	73,767,162 6	14,753,632 11 0				

RETURN of the Number of Marcs of Silver of Eight Ounces, reduced into Bars, at the Callana (Smelting-house) of Arequipa, during the Years 1832 to 1836.

Y E A R S.	Bars.	Marcs of Silver.	Dollars, Rials, at 8½ dollars per Marc.	Pounds Sterling. Exchange 48d. per Dollar.
	number.	marcs oz.	dlrs. rs.	£ s. d.
1832.....	63	10,628 3	90,341 1½	18,068 4 9
1833.....	43	7,130 2	60,607 1	12,121 10 6
1834.....	25	4,362 0	37,077 0	7,415 8 0
1835.....	21	3,673 5	31,225 6½	6,245 3 6
1836.....	24	3,794 7	32,256 3½	6,451 5 9
Total.....	176	29,589 1	251,507 4½	50,301 12 6

An Account of the Quantities of Gold and Silver stamped at the Mint of Santiago de Chili, from the Year 1790 to 1830 inclusive.

YEARS.	GOLD.			SILVER.		
	Marcs.		Value in dollars.	Marcs.		Value in dollars.
	marcs.		dollars. rs. ms.	marcs.		dollars. rs. ms.
1790.....	5,307	0 0	721,752 0 0	21,770	0 0	185,045 0 0
1791.....	5,621	4 0	764,524 0 0	23,882	4 0	203,001 0 0
1792.....	5,403	0 0	734,808 0 0	21,324	0 0	181,254 0 0
1793.....	4,850	0 0	659,600 0 0	29,895	0 0	254,107 4 0
1794.....	5,708	4 0	776,356 0 0	24,164	0 0	205,394 0 0
1795.....	6,072	4 0	825,860 0 0	28,306	0 0	240,601 0 0
1796.....	6,245	0 0	849,320 0 0	28,141	0 0	239,198 4 0
1797.....	6,005	0 0	816,680 0 0	27,490	0 0	233,665 0 0
1798.....	5,838	0 0	793,968 0 0	23,076	0 0	196,146 0 0
1799.....	5,193	0 0	706,248 0 0	22,945	0 0	195,032 4 0
1800.....	6,476	0 0	880,736 0 0	24,454	0 0	207,859 0 0
1801.....	5,117	0 0	695,912 0 0	24,510	0 0	208,335 0 0
1802.....	5,441	0 0	739,976 0 0	22,685	0 0	192,822 4 0
1803.....	5,496	0 0	747,456 0 0	15,000	0 0	127,500 0 0
1804.....	5,849	0 0	795,464 0 0	17,458	0 0	148,393 0 0
1805.....	5,282	0 0	714,272 0 0	20,630	0 0	175,355 0 0
1806.....	4,686	0 0	637,296 0 0	22,559	0 0	191,751 4 0
1807.....	4,625	0 0	629,000 0 0	15,950	0 0	135,575 0 0
1808.....	4,642	0 0	631,312 0 0	19,879	0 0	168,271 4 0
1809.....	4,815	0 0	654,840 0 0	19,082	0 0	162,197 0 0
1810.....	6,359	0 0	864,824 0 0	18,496	0 0	157,216 0 0
1811.....	5,230	0 0	712,042 0 0	13,177	0 0	112,289 0 0
1812.....	5,631	0 0	766,860 0 0	41,499	0 0	353,665 2 17
1813.....	4,574	0 0	622,604 0 0	59,865	0 0	509,918 2 0
1814.....	3,455	0 0	470,136 0 0	44,644	0 0	380,330 3 25½
1815.....	4,778	0 0	650,256 0 0	48,421	0 0	412,660 1 0
1816.....	4,719	0 0	642,206 0 0	57,740	0 0	492,082 2 0
1817.....	4,398	0 0	598,128 0 0	63,475	0 0	539,537 4 0
1818.....	3,702	0 0	503,472 0 0	44,142	5 4	375,212 6 24
1819.....	4,603	0 0	626,590 0 0	28,360	0 0	241,995 1 17
1820.....	4,290	0 0	583,816 0 0	13,963	0 0	118,645 1 25½
1821.....	1,192	0 0	271,336 0 0	15,458	0 0	131,723 1 17
1822.....	3,873	0 0	527,278 0 0	18,014	0 0	153,494 7 0
1823.....	2,300	0 0	313,160 0 0	5,729	0 0	48,809 7 0
1824.....	1,388	3 0	188,001 0 0	1,789	0 0	15,256 0 0
1825.....	1,152	7 0	156,953 0 0	400	0 0	3,400 0 0
1826.....	1,294	4 0	176,220 0 0	719	4 0	6,115 6 0
1827.....	282	0 0	38,390 0 0	62	4 0	531 2 0
1828.....	565	7 0	77,031 0 0			
1829.....						
1830.....	410	1 6	55,937 6 0	808	2 0	6,874 2 0
Total.....	172,869	0 0	23,630,620 6 0	929,963	3 4	7,911,761 2 17

British Consulate, Valparaiso, January 1, 1832.

ACCOUNT of the Quantity of the Precious Metals extracted from the Mines of the Republic of Chili, during the Year 1834.

METALS.	Coined at the Mint.		Exported from Valparaiso.		Exported from Coquimbo.		Exported from Huasco.		Exported from Copiapo.		TOTAL.	VALUE.
	marcs.	oz.	marcs.	oz.	marcs.	oz.	marcs.	oz.	marcs.	oz.	marcs. oz.	dlrs. rials.
Gold.....	3,840	2	11	7	..	..	..	..	3,852	1	3,852 1	525,231 6
Silver.....	5,405	0	67,793	0	83,979	5	3,879	4	3,878	0	164,935 1	1,484,416 1
	quintals.	lbs.	quintals.	lbs.	quintals.	lbs.	quintals.	lbs.	quintals.	lbs.	quintals. lbs.	
Copper.....	..	..	17,771	37	33,360	58	23,434	71	2,698	36	77,265 2	1,081,710 2½
Copper ore ...	..	..	6,389	32	9,499	0	20,961	92	..	..	36,850 24	66,791 0
												3,158,149 1½

The anarchy and the rebellions which have disordered the Spanish American Republics, have rendered it impossible to procure recent accounts of the produce of the mines; and we have been unable to procure any account of the produce of the Brazilian mines, upon which any reliance can be placed. The produce of the precious metals from all the mines in the world, is but very imperfectly known; and the foregoing tables contain, we believe, all the information of any consequence that has been officially ascertained.

END OF VOL. I.

C. WHITING, BEAUFORT HOUSE, STRAND.

PROGRESS OF AMERICA.

SUPPLEMENTS TO VOL. I.

I.—DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

JULY 4, 1776.

(From the Journals of Congress.)

A Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident:—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain, is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation, till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature; a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected ; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large, for their exercise ; the state remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these states ; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalisation of foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws ; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us :

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states :

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world :

For imposing taxes on us without our consent :

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury :

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences :

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilised nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms : our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.

JOHN HANCOCK, &c.

II.—THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—Section 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

Section II.—1. The house of representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states; and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years; and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes, shall be apportioned among the several states, which may be included within this union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and, excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Section III.—1. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they

shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

4. The vice-president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

6. The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: when sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Section IV.—1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Section V.—1. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorised to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither house, during the session of congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Section VI.—1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Section VII.—1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the senate,

shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States: if he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays; and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill, shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section VIII. The congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes.

4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads.

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court.

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations.

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water.

12. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

13. To provide and maintain a navy.

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrection, and repel invasions.

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by congress.

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the United States; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings:—And

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution

the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Section IX.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the congress prior to the year 1808; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the *census* or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Section X.—1. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No state shall, without the consent of the congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports, exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the congress.

3. No state shall, without the consent of the congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ART. II.—Section I.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. The congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4. No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5. In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice-president, and the congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice-president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

6. The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which

shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7. Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation :—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

Section II.—1. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies, that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Section III.—He shall, from time to time, give to the congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Section IV.—The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ART. III.—Section I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Section II.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more states;—between a state and citizens of another state; between citizens of another state; between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Section III.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

2. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

3. The congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ART. IV.—Section I. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Section II.—1. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

2. A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labour in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

Section III.—1. New states may be admitted by the congress into this Union, but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the congress.

2. The congress shall have power to dispose of and make needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

Section IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ART. V.—The congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the congress; provided that no amendment, which may be made prior to the year 1808, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ART. VI.—1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land, and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The senators and representatives before-mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ART. VII.—The ratification of the conventions of the nine states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution, between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present, the 17th day of September, in the year of our Lord, 1787, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEO. WASHINGTON,

President and Deputy from Virginia.

&c. &c. &c.

AMENDMENTS to the Constitution of the United States, ratified according to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the foregoing Constitution.

ARTICLE I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject, for the same offence, to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

IX. The enumeration, in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.*

XI. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state; or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.†

XII. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for president and vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as president, and any distinct ballots the person voted for as vice-president, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice-president, and of the

* The first ten amendments were proposed in 1789, and ratified in 1791.

† The eleventh article was ratified in 1798.

number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as president, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a president, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the 4th day of March next following, then the vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the president. The person having the greatest number of votes as vice-president, shall be the vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the vice-president; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice-president of the United States.*

It would be pronouncing a most partial and one-sided judgment, if we said that America had not defects in her government, and *domestic institutions*. In her *government executive weakness, or that want of power to enforce an implicit obedience to the laws, and to the administration of justice, so necessary, as Washington* has so nobly expressed it, *to liberty itself*, forms the chief insecurity, in regard to the protection of person or property, and of uncertainty, as to the equal and just administration of the laws in the United States. Take for example, the president, or speaker of the legislature of Arkansas, descending from his chair, and rushing at one of the members, and assassinating him with a *bowie knife* on the floor of the house. Yet no one dared to punish the monster for his crime! This defect of executive power in the strict enforcement of the laws, is more applicable to the separate state governments, over which the central government, as is maintained by the great American jurists, has no authority.†

* The twelfth was substituted in 1804, for a clause suppressed between (2) and (3) in the 1st Section of Article II.

† See Judge Upshur's remarks, hereafter, on the Constitution of the United States.

CONGRESS, OR LEGISLATURE OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE *Legislature*, or *Congress*, of the *United States*, consists of two chambers, a Senate, and House of Representatives; and, constitutionally, must assemble once each year; on the first Monday of December; unless otherwise by law appointed.

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.—Each State in the Union elects members to represent it in the federal congress of the United States. The suffrage in the election of members to the House of Representatives may be considered universal: excepting that women, minors, and slaves have no votes.

In March, 1823, an act of congress fixed the representatives of each state to one member for every 40,000 inhabitants, which for the following congress returned 213 representatives and three delegates.

In consequence of the extraordinary increase of the population, it was found that, according to this rule, the number of representatives would become too numerous to form a central debating assembly; especially in a federal government, in which each state had its particular legislature.

An act of congress was accordingly passed, in 1832, regulating the return of representatives to *one* for every 47,700 persons, computed according to the mode stated in the constitution.

The present or 28th congress is chosen according to the act of congress of 1842, the ratio being “one representative for every 70,680 persons in each state, and of one additional representative for each state having a fraction greater than one moiety of the said ratio, computed according to the rule prescribed by the constitution of the United States.” The law of 1842 also requires, that the representatives of each state “shall be elected *by districts* composed of a contiguous territory, equal in number to the number of representatives to which each state may be entitled, no one district electing more than one representative.” The present number is 223 representatives and 3 delegates.

According to the law of 1842, and the scale of 1832, the members returned by the respective states were as follows:—

S T A T E S.	Members.		S T A T E S.	Members.		S T A T E S.	Members.	
	1832	1842		1832	1842		1832	1842
Maine.....	8	7	Maryland.....	8	6	Kentucky.....	13	10
New Hampshire.....	5	4	Virginia.....	21	15	Ohio.....	19	21
Vermont.....	5	4	North Carolina.....	13	9	Indiana.....	7	10
Massachussets.....	12	10	South ditto.....	9	7	Illinois.....	3	7
Rhode Island.....	2	2	Georgia.....	9	8	Missouri.....	2	5
Connecticut.....	6	4	Alabama.....	5	7	Michigan.....	1	3
New York.....	40	34	Mississippi.....	2	4	Total representatives..	242	223
New Jersey.....	6	5	Louisiana.....	3	4			
Pennsylvania.....	28	24	Arkansas.....	1	1			
Delaware.....	1	1	Tennessee.....	13	11			

COMPARATIVE View of the Representation, Area, and Productions of the United States.

NAMES OF STATES.	Number of Senators.	Representatives in present congress.	Representatives in next congress.	Population 1840.	Area in Acres.	AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS AND STOCK IN 1840.				
						Wheat.	Oats.	Indian Corn.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
						bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	lbs.	lbs.
Maine.....	2	8	7	501,793	19,720,000	848,166	1,076,409	950,528	..	30
New Hampshire	2	5	4	284,587	5,440,060	422,124	1,296,114	1,162,572	..	115
Massachusetts..	2	12	10	737,690	5,440,000	157,923	1,319,680	1,809,092	..	64,915
Rhode Island...	2	2	2	108,830	960,000	3,098	171,517	1,450,498	..	317
Connecticut.....	2	6	4	309,797	3,048,960	87,009	1,453,262	1,500,441	..	471,657
Vermont.....	2	5	4	221,498	6,535,680	495,800	2,222,584	1,119,678	..	585
New York.....	2	40	34	2,428,921	30,080,000	12,286,418	20,675,847	10,972,287	..	744
New Jersey....	2	6	5	373,306	4,424,000	774,203	3,083,524	4,461,975	..	1,922
Pennsylvania...	2	28	24	1,724,033	29,440,000	13,123,077	20,640,619	14,240,022	..	325,811
Delaware.....	2	1	1	78,085	1,335,800	315,165	927,405	2,088,559	334	272
South Carolina.	2	9	7	594,398	19,251,200	968,445	1,486,208	14,722,805	61,710,274	52,119
Georgia.....	2	9	8	691,392	39,120,000	1,801,130	1,610,080	20,905,822	163,392,396	162,844
Alabama.....	2	5	7	590,756	29,440,000	828,052	4,066,155	20,947,054	117,638,833	273,202
Mississippi.....	2	2	4	375,651	30,000,000	195,626	668,624	13,161,237	193,401,187	83,274
Louisiana.....	2	3	4	352,411	30,860,000	60	107,353	5,952,912	152,555,658	119,824
Florida.....	..	..	..	54,477	36,900,000	30	13,829	898,947	12,110,553	75,274
Arkansas.....	2	1	1	97,574	35,200,000	105,878	189,553	4,486,632	6,028,642	148,438
North Carolina.	2	13	9	753,419	28,032,000	1,960,855	3,193,941	23,893,763	51,696,190	16,772,359
Tennessee.....	2	13	11	820,210	25,600,000	4,569,692	7,035,678	44,986,188	27,701,207	29,550,432
Maryland.....	2	8	6	469,232	7,008,000	3,345,783	3,534,211	8,233,886	5,637	24,816,012
Virginia.....	2	21	15	1,239,797	40,960,000	10,109,716	13,451,062	34,537,591	3,495,483	75,347,000
Kentucky.....	2	13	10	779,828	29,920,000	4,808,152	7,155,974	39,847,120	661,456	53,436,909
Missouri.....	2	2	5	383,702	39,424,000	1,037,385	2,234,917	17,232,524	121,122	9,067,913
Ohio.....	2	19	21	1,519,467	25,000,000	16,575,661	14,393,103	33,186,144	..	5,042,275
Indiana.....	2	7	10	685,866	23,000,000	4,040,375	5,981,605	28,155,187	180	1,820,306
Illinois.....	2	3	7	476,183	38,084,000	3,335,393	4,988,048	22,634,201	200,947	564,326
Michigan.....	2	1	3	212,267	38,400,000	2,257,108	2,114,051	2,277,039	..	1602
Iowa.....	..	..	..	43,112	35,000,000	728	216,384	1,406,341	..	8976
Wisconsin.....	..	..	..	30,945	35,000,000	11,062	406,514	379,354	..	115
Aggregate...	52	242	223	17,068,656	696,747,000	84,823,272	123,071,341	377,513,875	790,479,275	219,163,319

Since the 4th of March, 1807, the compensation of each member of the Senate and House of Representatives, has been eight dollars a day, during the period of his attendance in congress, without deduction in case of sickness ; and eight dollars for every twenty miles' travelled, on the usual road, in going to and returning from the seat of government. The compensation of the president of the Senate, *pro tempore*, and of the Speaker of the House of Representatives, is sixteen dollars a day.

The salaries of the officers are :—1 clerk of the house, 3000 dollars ; 1 chief under clerk, 1800 dollars ; 10 clerks, each 1500 dollars ; 1 serjeant-at-arms, 1500 dollars ; 1 principal door-keeper, 1500 dollars ; 1 assistant door-keeper, 1450 dollars ; 1 postmaster, 1500 dollars ; 1 messenger, 600 dollars ; 1 librarian, 1500 dollars ; 2 assistant librarians, 1150 dollars.

The privileges and powers of the House of Representatives are prescribed in the constitution. Election of members to the House of Representatives takes place every two years.

THE SENATE.—The Upper House of Congress, consists of forty-eight members, elected by the legislatures of the several states ; each sending two. They are elected for six years ; one-third going out every two years. The pay and allowances to the members and president are the same as to those of the House of Representatives. The vice-president of the United States is president, *ex-officio*, of the Senate.

The salaries of the officers are:—1 secretary, 3000 dollars: 1 chief clerk, 1800 dollars; 5 clerks, each 1500 dollars; 1 clerk, 1000 dollars; 1 serjeant-at-arms and door-keeper, 1500 dollars each; 1 assistant door-keeper, 1450 dollars; 1 messenger, 700 dollars; 1 postmaster, 1500 dollars; 1 librarian, 1500 dollars; 2 assistant librarians, 1150 dollars.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.—The chief magistrate of the United States is elected by a body of distinct electors, qualified within each state.* Their votes are sent under seal to congress who have the right of electing the president, if the candidate have not more than half the whole number of votes in his favour.

The powers of the president, during his administration of four years, are very extensive. See them stated, as well as the privileges and rights of congress, in the constitution. His salary is, 25,000 dollars, or 5125*l.*; that of the vice-president, 5000 dollars, or 1025*l.*

The powers vested by the constitution in the central government extend to all negotiations with foreign nations; maintaining and organising the naval and military forces; the sole regulation of foreign trade; and all matters connected with the general revenue and finances.

The views taken by the federalists, and the democrats, of the constitution of the United States, have, frequently, been greatly opposed to each other. Of the several jurists who have written on the constitution of the United States; the authors of the Federalists, Judge Story and Chief-justice Kent are the most eminent. The late learned Secretary of State, Mr. Upshur, appears to us to have comprehended that celebrated act more clearly than any other jurist.

“A work,” says Mr. Upshur,† “presenting a proper analysis and correct views of the constitution of the United States, has long been a desideratum with the public. It is true that the last fifteen years have not been unfruitful in commentaries upon that instrument: *such* commentaries, however, as have, for the most part, met a deserved fate in immediate and total oblivion. A few have appeared, however, of a much higher order, and bearing the stamp of talent, learning, and research. Among these, the work of Judge Story and the ‘Commentaries’ of Chief Justice Kent hold the first rank. Both these works are, as it is natural they should be, strongly tinctured with the political opinions of their respective authors; and as there is a perfect concurrence between them in this respect, their joint authority can scarcely fail to exert a strong influence upon public opinion.

“The authority of great names is of such imposing weight, that mere reason and argument can rarely counterpoise it in the public mind; and its preponderance is not easily

* See the 2nd article of the constitution, and the 12th article of the Amendments.

† The late Judge Upshur, a short time before his lamentable death, sent me his views on the Constitution of the United States. They are so remarkable that I consider the leading parts, which I have extracted, as absolutely necessary to a just understanding of the Constitution of the United States, as a confederative government, and as elucidating the separate constitutions of the several states. The late Mr Upshur was one of the highest legal authorities in the United States. His predecessor in the office of secretary of state, Mr. Legaré, was also a profound lawyer, and my personal friend. He was carried off suddenly while on a visit to Boston, in 1842; and Mr. Upshur, who succeeded him, was destroyed, with several others, in 1843, by the bursting of a monstrous cannon on board a steam frigate. A more pure-minded statesman, and more virtuous man than Mr. Upshur, I believe there did not exist.

overcome, except by adding like authority to the weight of reason and argument, in the opposing scale. I hope it is not yet too late for this suggestion to have its effect upon those to whom it is addressed.

"The first commentary upon the constitution, the 'Federalist,' is decidedly the best which has yet appeared. The writers of that book were actors in all the interesting scenes of the period, and two of them were members of the convention which formed the constitution. Added to this, their extensive information, their commanding talents, and their experience in great public affairs, qualified them, in a peculiar degree, for the task which they undertook. Nevertheless, their great object was to *recommend* the constitution to the people, at a time when it was very uncertain whether they would adopt it or not; and hence their work, although it contains a very full and philosophical analysis of the subject, comes to us as a mere argument in support of a favourite measure, and, for that reason, does not always command our entire confidence. Besides, the constitution was then untried, and its true character, which is to be learned only from its practical operation, could only be conjectured. Much has been developed in the actual practice of the government, which no politician of that day could either have foreseen or imagined. New questions have arisen, not then anticipated, and difficulties and embarrassments, wholly unforeseen, have sprung from new events in the relation of the states to one another, and to the general government. Hence the 'Federalist' cannot be relied on as full and safe authority in all cases. It is, indeed, matter of just surprise, and affording the strongest proof of the profound wisdom and far-seeing sagacity of the authors of that work, that their views of the constitution have been so often justified in the course of its practical operation. Still, however, it must be admitted that the 'Federalist' is defective in some important particulars, and deficient in many more. The constitution is much better understood at this day than it was at the time of its adoption. This is not true of the great principles of civil and political liberty, which lie at the foundation of that instrument, but it is emphatically true of some of its provisions, which were considered at the time as comparatively unimportant, or so plain as not to be misunderstood, but which have been shown by subsequent events, to be pregnant with the greatest difficulties, and to exert the most important influence upon the whole character of the government. Contemporary expositions of the constitution, therefore, although they should be received as authority in *some* cases, and may enlighten our judgments in most others, cannot be regarded as safe guides, by the expounder of that instrument at this day. The subject demands our attention now, as strongly as it did before the 'Federalist' was written.

"Judge Story fills a high station in the judiciary of the United States, and has acquired a character, for talents and learning, which ensures respect to whatever he may publish under his own name. His duty, as a judge of the supreme court, has demanded of him frequent investigations of the nicest questions of constitutional law; and his long service in that capacity, has probably brought under his review, every provision of that instrument, in regard to which any difference of opinion has prevailed. Assisted, as he has been by the arguments of the ablest counsel, and by the joint deliberations of the other judges of the court, it would be, indeed, wonderful, if he should hazard his well-earned reputation as a jurist, upon any hasty or unweighed opinion, upon subjects so grave and important. He has also been an attentive observer of political events, and although, by no means obtrusive in politics, has yet a political character, scarcely less distinguished than his character as a jurist. To all these claims to public attention and respect, may be added a reputation for laborious research, and for calm and temperate thinking.

"The first part of Judge Story's work relates to a subject of the greatest interest to every American, and well worthy the study of philosophical inquiries, all over the world. There is not within the whole range of history, an event more important, with reference to its effects upon the world at large, than the settlement of the American colonies. It did not fall within the plan of our author to inquire very extensively, or very minutely, into the mere history of the events, which distinguished that extraordinary enterprise. So far as the first settlers may be regarded as actuated by avarice, by ambition, or by any other of the usual motives of the adventurer, their deeds belong to the province of the historian alone. We, however, must contemplate them in another and a higher character. A deep

and solemn feeling of religion, and an attachment to, and an understanding of, the principles of civil liberty, far in advance of the age in which they lived, suggested to most of them the idea of seeking a new home, and founding new institutions, in the western world. To this spirit we are indebted for all that is free and liberal in our present political systems. It would be a work of very great interest, and altogether worthy of the political historian, to trace the great principles of our institutions back to their sources. Their origin would probably be discovered at a period much more remote than is generally supposed. We should derive from such a review, much light in the interpretation of those parts of our systems, as to which we have no precise rules in the language of our constitutions of government. It is to be regretted that Judge Story did not take this view of the subject. Although not strictly required by the plan of his work, it was, nevertheless, altogether consistent with it ; and would have added much to its interest with the general reader. His sources of historical information were ample, and his habits and the character of his mind fitted him well for such an investigation, and for presenting the result in an analytic and philosophical form. He has chosen, however, to confine himself within much narrower limits. Yet, even within those limits, he has brought together a variety of historical facts of great interest ; and has presented them, in a condensed form, well calculated to make a lasting impression upon the memory. The brief sketch which he has given of the settlement of the several colonies, and of the charters from which they derived their rights and powers as separate governments, contains much to enable us to understand fully the relation which they bore to one another, and to the mother country. This is the true starting point in the investigation of those vexed questions of constitutional law, which have so long divided political parties in the United States. It would seem almost impossible that any two opinions could exist upon the subject ; and yet the historical facts upon which alone all parties must rely, although well authenticated, and comparatively recent, have not been understood by all men alike. Our author was well aware of the importance of settling this question at the threshold of his work. Many of the powers which have been claimed for the federal government, by the political party to which he belongs, depend upon a denial of that separate existence, and separate sovereignty and independence, which the opposing party has uniformly claimed for the States.

“It appears to be a favourite object with the author, to impress upon the mind of the reader, at the very commencement of his work, the idea, that the people of the several colonies were, as to some objects, which he has not explained, and, to some extent, which he has not defined, ‘*one people*.’ But although the colonies were independent of each other in respect to their domestic concerns, they were not wholly alien to each other. On the contrary, they were fellow-subjects, and for many purposes one people. Every colonist had a right to inhabit, if he pleased, in any other colony, and as a British subject he was capable of inheriting lands by descent in every other colony. The commercial intercourse of the colonies, too, was regulated by the general laws of the British empire, and could not be restrained or obstructed by colonial legislation. The remarks of Mr. Chief Justice Jay are equally just and striking :—‘All the people of this country were then subjects of the King of Great Britain, and owed allegiance to him, and all the civil authority then existing or exercised here, flowed from the head of the British empire. They were, in a strict sense *fellow-subjects*, and, in a variety of respects, *one people*. When the revolution commenced the patriots did not assert that only the same affinity and social connexion subsisted between the people of the colonies which subsisted between the people of Gaul, Britain, and Spain, while Roman provinces, to wit, only that affinity and social connexion which results from the mere circumstance of being governed by the same prince.’

“The historical facts stated by both of these gentlemen are truly stated, but it is surprising that it did not occur to such cool reasoners, that every one of them is the *result of the relation between the colonies and the mother country, and not the result of the relation between the colonies themselves*. Every British subject, whether born in England proper or in a colony, has a right to reside anywhere within the British realm, and this *by the force of British laws*. Such is the right of every Englishman wherever he may be found. As to the right of the colonist to inherit lands by descent in any other colony than his own, our author himself informs us, that it belonged to him, ‘as a British subject.’ That right,

indeed, is a consequence of his allegiance. By the policy of the British constitution and laws, it is not permitted that the soil of her territory should belong to any, from whom she cannot demand all the duties of allegiance. This allegiance is the same in all the colonies as it is in England proper; and, wherever it exists, the correspondent right to own and inherit the soil attaches. The right to regulate commercial intercourse among her colonies, belongs, of course, to the parent country, unless she relinquishes it by some act of her own; and no such act is shown in the present case. On the contrary, although that right was resisted for a time by some of the American colonies, it was finally yielded, as our author himself informs us, by all those of New England; and I am not informed that it was denied by any other. Indeed, the supremacy of parliament, in most matters of legislation which concerned the colonies, was generally—nay, *universally* admitted, up to the very eve of the revolution. It is true, the right to *tax* the colonies was denied, but this was upon a wholly different principle; it was the right of every British subject to be exempt from taxation, except by his own consent; and as the colonies were not, and, from their local situation, could not be, represented in parliament, the right of that body to tax them was denied, upon a fundamental principle of English liberty. But the right of the mother country to regulate commerce among her colonies is of a different character, and it never was denied to England by her American colonies, so long as a hope of reconciliation remained to them. In like manner, the facts relied on by Mr. Jay, that ‘all the people of this country were then subjects of the King of Great Britain, and owed allegiance to him,’ and that, ‘all the civil authority then existing or exercised here, flowed from the head of the British empire,’ are but the usual incidents of colonial dependence, and are by no means peculiar to the case he was considering. They do, indeed, prove a unity between all the colonies and *the mother country*, and show that these, taken altogether, are, in the strictest sense of the terms, ‘one people;’ but I am at a loss to perceive how they prove that two or more parts, or subdivisions, of the same empire, necessarily constitute ‘one people.’ If this be true of the colonies, it is equally true of any two or more geographical sections of England proper; for every one of the reasons assigned, applies as strictly to this case as to that of the colonies. Any two countries may be ‘one people,’ or ‘a nation *de facto*’ if they can be made so by the facts that their people are ‘subjects of the King of Great Britain, and owe allegiance to him,’ and that, ‘all the civil authority exercised therein, flows from the head of the British empire.’

“And, so far as the rights of the mother country are concerned, they existed in the same form, and to the same extent, over every other colony of the empire. Did this make the people of *all* the colonies ‘one people?’ If so, the people of Jamaica, the British East Indian possessions, and the Canadas, are, for the very same reason, ‘one people’ at this day.

“The *general* relation between colonies and the parent country is as well settled and understood as any other; and it is precisely the same in all cases, except where special consent and agreement may vary it. Whoever, therefore, would prove that any peculiar *unity* existed between the American colonies, is bound to show something in their characters, or some peculiarity in their condition, to exempt them from the general rule. Judge Story was too well acquainted with the state of the facts, to make any such attempt in the present case. The congress of the nine colonies, which assembled at New York, in October, 1765, declare that the colonists “owe the same allegiance to the crown of Great Britain that is owing from his subjects born within the realm, and all due subordination to that august body, the Parliament of Great Britain.” “That the colonists are entitled to all the inherent rights and liberties of his (the king’s) natural-born subjects within the Kingdom of Great Britain.” We have here an all-sufficient foundation of the right of the crown to regulate commerce among the colonies, and of the right of the colonists to inhabit and to inherit land in each and all the colonies. They were nothing more than the ordinary rights and liabilities of every British subject; and, indeed, the most that the colonies ever contended for, was an equality, in these respects, with the subjects born in England.

“The great effort of the author, throughout his entire work, is to establish the doctrine, that the constitution of the United States is a government of ‘the people of the United States,’ as contra-distinguished from the people of the several states; or, in other words,

that it is a consolidated, and not a federative system. His construction of every contested federal power, depends mainly upon this distinction ; and hence the necessity of establishing a *oneness* among the people of the several colonies, prior to the revolution.

“In order to constitute ‘one people,’ in a political sense, of the inhabitants of different countries, something more is necessary than that they should owe a common allegiance to a common sovereign. Neither is it sufficient that in some particulars they are bound alike, by laws which that sovereign may prescribe ; nor does the question depend on geographical relations. The inhabitants of different islands may be one people, and those of contiguous countries may be, as we know they in fact are, different nations. By the term *people*, as here used, we do not mean merely a number of persons. We mean by it a political corporation, the members of which owe a common allegiance to a common sovereignty, and do not owe any allegiance which is *not* common ; who are bound by no laws except such as that sovereignty may prescribe ; who owe to one another reciprocal obligations ; who possess common political interests ; who are liable to common political duties ; and who can exert no sovereign power except in the name of the whole. Any thing short of this would be an imperfect definition of that political corporation which we call a *people*.

“Tested by this definition, the people of the American colonies were, in no conceivable sense, ‘one people.’ They owed, indeed, allegiance to the British king, as the head of each colonial government, and as forming a part thereof, but this allegiance was exclusive in each colony to its own government, and consequently to the king as the head thereof, and was not a common allegiance of the people of all the colonies, to a common head.* These colonial governments were clothed with the sovereign power of making laws, and of enforcing obedience to them, from their own people. The people of one colony owed no allegiance to the government of any other colony, and were not bound by its laws. The colonies had no common legislature, no common treasury, no common military power, no common judicatory. The people of one colony were not liable to pay taxes to any other colony, nor to bear arms in its defence ; they had no right to vote in its elections ; no influence nor control in its municipal government, no interest in its municipal institutions. There was no prescribed form by which the colonies could act together, for any purpose whatever ; they were not known as ‘one people’ in any one function of government, although they were all, alike, dependencies of the British crown, yet, even in the action of the parent country in regard to them, they were recognised as separate and distinct. They were established at different times, and each under an authority from the crown which applied to itself alone. They were not even alike in their organisation. Some were provincial, some were proprietary, and some charter governments. Each derived its form of government from the particular instrument establishing it, or from assumptions of power acquiesced in by the crown, without any connexion with, or relation to, any other. They stood upon the same footing, in every respect, with other British colonies, with nothing to distinguish their relation either to the parent country or to one another. The charter of any one of them might have been destroyed, without in any manner affecting the rest. In point of fact, the charters of nearly all of them were altered from time to time, and the whole character of their governments changed. These changes were made in each colony for itself alone, sometimes by its own action, sometimes by the power and authority of the crown ; but never by the joint agency of any other colony, and never with reference to the wishes or demands of any other colony. Thus they were separate and distinct in their creation, separate and distinct in the forms of their governments, separate and distinct in the modifications of their government, which were made from time to time, separate and distinct in political functions, in political rights, and in political duties.

“The provincial government of Virginia was the first established. The people of Virginia owed allegiance to the British king, as the head of their own local government. The authority of that government was confined within certain geographical limits known as

* The resolutions of Virginia, in 1796, show that *she* considered herself merely as an appendage of the British Crown ; that *her* legislature was alone authorised to tax her ; and that she had a right to call on *her* king, who was also King of England, to protect her against the usurpations of the British parliament.

Virginia, and all who lived within those limits were 'one people.' When the colony of Plymouth was subsequently settled, were the people of that colony one with the people of Virginia? When, long afterwards, the proprietary government of Pennsylvania was established, were the followers of William Penn 'one' with the people of Plymouth and Virginia? If so, to which government was their allegiance due? Virginia had a government of her own, Pennsylvania a government of her own, and Massachusetts a government of her own. The people of Pennsylvania could not be equally bound by the laws of all three governments; because those laws might happen to conflict; they could not owe the duties of citizenship to all of them alike, because they *might* stand in hostile relations to one another. Either then the government of Virginia, which originally extended over the whole territory, continued to be supreme therein, (subject only to its dependence upon the British Crown,) or else its supremacy was yielded to the new government. Every one knows that this last was the case, that within the territory of the new government, the authority of that government alone prevailed. How then could the people of this new government of Pennsylvania be said to be 'one' with the people of Virginia, when they were not citizens of Virginia, owed her no allegiance and no duty, and when their allegiance to another government might place them in the relation of enemies of Virginia?

"In further illustration of this point, let us suppose that some one of the colonies had refused to unite in the declaration of independence; what relation would it then have held to the others? Not having disclaimed its allegiance to the British crown, it would still have continued to be a British colony, subject to the authority of the parent country in all respects as before. Could the other colonies have rightfully compelled it to unite with them in their revolutionary purposes, on the ground that it was part and parcel of the 'one people' known as the people of the colonies? No such right was ever claimed or dreamed of, and it will scarcely be contended for now, in the face of the known history of the time. Such recusant colony would have stood precisely as did the Canadas, and every other part of the British empire. The colonies which had declared war, would have considered its people as enemies, but would not have had a right to treat them as traitors, or as disobedient citizens resisting their authority. To what purpose then were the people of the colonies 'one people,' if in a case so important to the common welfare, there was no right in all the people together, to coerce the members of their own community to the performance of a common duty?

"It is thus apparent that the people of the colonies were not 'one people' as to any purpose involving allegiance on the one hand or protection on the other.

"As early as 1765, a majority of the colonies had met together in congress, or convention, in New York, for the purpose of deliberating on these grave matters of common concern; and they then made a formal declaration of what they considered their rights, as colonists and British subjects. This measure, however, led to no redress of their grievances. On the contrary, the subsequent measures of the British government gave new and just causes of complaint; so that, in 1774, it was deemed necessary that the colonies should again meet together, in order to consult upon their general condition, and provide for the safety of their common rights. Hence the congress, which met in Carpenter's Hall on the 5th of September, 1774. It consisted of delegates from New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, *from the City and County of New York, and other counties in the Province of New York*, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, *Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex, in Delaware*, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina. North Carolina was not represented until the 14th of September, and Georgia not at all. It is also apparent that New York was not represented *as a colony*, but only through certain portions of her people; in like manner, Lyman Hall was admitted to his seat, in the succeeding congress, as a delegate from the parish of St. John's, in Georgia, although he declined to vote on any question requiring a majority of *the colonies* to carry it, because he was not the representative of a colony. This congress passed a variety of important resolutions, between September, 1774, and October 22nd, in the same year, during all which time Georgia was not represented at all; for even the parish of St. John's did not appoint a representative till May, 1775. In point of fact, the congress was a *deliberative and advisory* body, and nothing more; and for this reason it was not deemed important, or, at least, not *indispensable*, that all the

colonies should be represented, since the resolutions of congress had no obligatory force whatever. It was appointed for the sole purpose of taking into consideration the general condition of the colonies, and of devising and recommending proper measures for the security of their rights and interests. For these objects no precise powers and instructions were necessary, and *beyond* them none were given. Neither does it appear that any precise time was assigned for the duration of congress. The duty with which it was charged was extremely simple; and it was taken for granted that it would dissolve itself as soon as that duty was performed.

“Speaking of the congress of 1774, Marshall says: ‘The members of this congress were *generally* elected by the authority of the colonial legislatures, but, in *some* instances, a different system had been pursued. In New Jersey and Maryland, the elections were made by committees, chosen in the several counties for that particular purpose: and in New York, where the royal party was very strong, and where it is probable that no legislative act, authorising an election of members to represent that colony in congress could have been obtained, the people themselves assembled in those places, where the spirit of opposition to the claims of parliament prevailed, and elected deputies, who were very readily received into congress.’ Here the *general rule* is stated to be, that the deputies were elected by the ‘colonial legislatures;’ and the instances in which the people acted, ‘directly in their primary, sovereign capacity,’ without the intervention of the ordinary functionaries of government, are given as *exceptions*.

“As to New York, neither her people nor her government, had so far lost their attachment to the mother country, as to concur in any measure of opposition, until after the battle of Lexington, in April, 1775; and the only representatives which New York had in the congress of 1774, were those of a comparatively small portion of her people. It is well known, and, indeed the author himself so informs us, that the members of the congress of 1775, were elected substantially, as were those of the preceding congress; so that there were very few of the colonies, in which the people performed that act in their ‘primary sovereign capacity,’ without the intervention of their constituted authorities. It is of little consequence, however, to the present inquiry, whether the deputies were chosen by the colonial legislatures, as was done in most of the colonies, or by conventions, as was done in Georgia, and some others; or by committees appointed for the purpose, as was done in one or two instances; or by the people in primary assemblies, as was done in *part* of New York. The circumstances under which the congresses of 1774 and 1775, were called into existence, precluded the possibility of any precise limitations of their powers, even if it had been designed to clothe them with the functions of government. The colonies were suffering under common oppressions, and were threatened with common dangers from the mother country. The great object which they had in view, was to produce that concert of action among themselves which would best enable them to resist their common enemy, and best secure the safety and liberties of all. Great confidence must necessarily be reposed in public rulers, under circumstances of this sort.

“Many of those powers which, for greater convenience, were entrusted exclusively to congress, could not be effectually exerted, except by the aid of the state authorities. The troops required by congress, were raised by the states, and the commissions of their officers were countersigned by the governors of the states. Congress were allowed to issue bills of credit, but they could not make them a legal tender, nor punish the counterfeiter of them. Neither could they bind the states to redeem them, nor raise, by their own authority, the necessary funds for that purpose. Congress received ambassadors and other public ministers, yet they had no power to extend to them that protection, which they receive from the government of every sovereign nation.

“Thus it appears that, in the important functions of raising an army, of providing a public revenue, of paying public debts, and giving security to the persons of foreign ministers, the boasted ‘sovereignty’ of the federal government was merely nominal, and owed its entire efficiency to the co-operation and aid of the state governments. Congress had no power to coerce these governments, nor could it exercise any direct authority over their individual citizens.

“Although the powers actually assumed and exercised by congress, were certainly very great, they were not always acquiesced in, or allowed by the states. Thus, the power to

lay an embargo, was earnestly desired by them, but was denied by the states; and in order the more clearly to indicate that many of their powers were exercised merely by sufferance, and, at the same time, to lend a sanction to their authority, so far as they chose to allow it, it was deemed necessary, by at least *one* of the states, to pass laws indemnifying those who might act in obedience to the resolutions of that body.

"The following extract from the journals of the convention, containing the history of this interesting event, cannot fail to be acceptable to every American reader.

"Wednesday, May 15th, 1776.—The convention, then, according to the order of the day, resolved itself into a committee on the state of the colony; and after some time spent therein, Mr. President resumed the chair, and Mr. Carey reported that the committee had, according to order, had under their consideration the state of the colony, and had come to the following resolutions thereupon; which he read in his place, and afterwards delivered in at the clerk's table, where the same were again twice read, and unanimously agreed to, one hundred and twelve members being present.

"For as much as all the endeavours of the united colonies, by the most decent representations and petitions to the king and parliament of Great Britain, to restore peace and security to America under the British government, and a reunion with that people, upon just and liberal terms, instead of a redress of grievances, having produced, from an imperious and vindictive administration, increased insult, oppression, and a vigorous attempt to effect our total destruction. By a late act, all these colonies are declared to be in rebellion, and out of the protection of the British crown, our properties subject to confiscation, our people, when captivated, compelled to join in the plunder and murder of their relations and countrymen, and all former rapine and oppression of Americans declared legal and just. Fleets and armies are raised, and the aid of foreign troops engaged to assist these destructive purposes. The king's representative in this colony hath not only withheld all the powers of government from operating for our safety, but, having retired on board an armed ship, is carrying on a piratical and savage war against us, tempting our slaves by every artifice to resort to him, and training and employing them against their masters.

"In this state of extreme danger, we have no alternative left, but an abject submission to the will of those overbearing tyrants, or a total separation from the crown and government of Great Britain, uniting and exerting the strength of all America for defence, and forming alliances with foreign powers for commerce and aid in war. Wherefore, appealing to the searcher of all hearts, for the sincerity of former declarations, expressing our desire to preserve our connexion with that nation, and that we are driven from that inclination by their wicked councils and the eternal laws of self-preservation; resolved, unanimously, that the delegates appointed to represent this colony in general congress, be instructed to propose to that respectable body, to declare the united colonies free and independent states, absolved from all allegiance to, or dependence upon, the crown or parliament of Great Britain; and that they give the assent of this colony to that declaration, and to whatever measures may be thought proper and necessary by the congress, for forming foreign alliances, and a confederation of the colonies, at such time and in such manner as to them may seem best. Provided, that the power of forming government for, and the regulations of the internal concerns of each colony, be left to the respective colonial legislatures.

"Resolved, unanimously, that a committee be appointed to prepare a declaration of rights, and such a plan of government, as will be most likely to maintain peace and order in this colony, and secure substantial and equal liberty to the people."

"It is impossible to contemplate this proceeding on the part of Virginia, without being convinced that she acted from her own free and sovereign will; and that *she*, at least, *did* 'presume' to establish a government for herself, without the least regard to the recommendation or the pleasure of congress.

"We all admit that the power and authority of the federal government, within its constitutional sphere, are superior to those of the states, in some instances; and co-ordinate in others; and that every citizen is under an absolute obligation, to render them respect and obedience; and this *simply because his own state, by the act of ratifying the constitution, has commanded him to do so*. We all admit it to be true, as a general proposition, that no citizen nor state has an independent right to 'construe,' and still less to 'control,' the constitutional obligations of that government, and that neither a citizen nor a state can

‘judge,’ that is, ‘decide’ on the nature and extent of those obligations, with a view to control them. All that has ever been contended for, is, that a state has a right to judge of its *own* obligations ; and, consequently, to judge of those of the federal government, so far as they relate to *such state itself*, and no farther. It is admitted on all hands, that when the federal government *transcends* its constitutional power, and when, of course, it is not acting *within* its ‘obligations,’ the parties to that government, whoever they may be, are no longer under any duty to respect or obey it. This has been repeatedly affirmed by our courts, both state and federal ; and has never been denied by any class of politicians. Who then is to determine whether it has so transcended its constitutional obligations, or not ? It is admitted, that to a certain extent, the supreme court, is the proper tribunal, in the last resort, because the states in establishing that tribunal, have expressly agreed to make it so. The jurisdiction of the federal courts extends to certain cases, affecting the rights of the individual citizens, and to certain others affecting those of the individual states. So far as the federal government is authorised to act on the individual citizen, the powers of the one and the rights of the other, are properly determinable by the federal courts ; and the decision is binding too, and absolutely final, so far as the relation of the citizen to the *federal government* is concerned. There is not, within that system, any tribunal of appeal, from the decisions of the supreme court. And so also of those cases in which the rights of *the states* are referred to the federal tribunals. In this sense and to this extent, it is strictly true that the parties have not ‘an independent right to construe, control, and judge of the obligations’ of the federal government ; but they are bound by the decisions of the federal courts, so far as they have authorised and agreed to submit to them. But there are many cases involving the question of federal power, which are not cognisable before the federal courts ; and, of course, as to these, we must look out for some other umpire. It is precisely in this case, that the question who are the parties to the constitution, becomes all important and controlling. If the states are parties as sovereign states, then it follows, as a necessary consequence, that each of them has the right which belongs to every sovereignty, to construe its own contracts and agreements, and to decide upon its own rights and powers.

“The *nullifier* contends only for the right of a state to *prevent the constitution from being violated by the general government*, and not for the right either to repeal, abrogate, or suspend it. The *seceder* asserts only, that a state is competent to withdraw from the union whenever it pleases ; but does not assert that in so doing, it can repeal, or abrogate, or suspend the constitution as to the other states. Secession would, indeed, utterly destroy the compact as to the seceding party ; but would not necessarily affect its obligation as to the rest. If it would, then the rest would have no right to coerce the seceding state, nor to place her in the attitude of an enemy. *It is certain, I think, they would not have such right* ; but those who assert that they would—and Judge Story is among the number—must either abandon that idea, or they must admit that the act of secession does not break up the constitution, except as the seceding state. For the moment the constitution is destroyed, all the authorities which it has established, cease to exist. There is no longer such a government as that of the United States ; and, of course, they cannot, as such, either make any demand, or assert any right, or enforce any claim.

“Having disposed of this preliminary question, we now approach the constitution itself. *I affirm that it is in its structure a federative and not a consolidated government* ; that it is so in all its departments, and in all its leading and distinguishing provisions ; and, of course, that it is to be so interpreted, *by the force of its own terms*, apart from any influence to be derived from that rule of construction which has just been laid down. We will first examine it in the structure of its several departments.

“*The Legislature.*—This consists of two houses. The senate is composed of two members from each state, chosen by its own legislature, whatever be its size or population, and is universally admitted to be strictly federative in its structure. The house of representatives consists of members chosen in each state, and is regulated in its numbers according to a prescribed ratio of representation. The number to which each state is entitled is proportioned to its own population, and not to the population of the United States ; and if there happen to be a surplus in any state less than the established ratio, that surplus is not added to the surplus or population of any other state, in order to make up the requisite number

for a representative, but is wholly unrepresented. In the choice of representatives, each state votes by itself, and for its own representatives, and not in connexion with any other state, nor for the representatives of any other state. Each state prescribes the qualifications of its own voters, the constitution only providing that they shall have the qualifications which such state may have prescribed for the voters for the most numerous branch of its own legislature. And as the *right* to vote is prescribed by the state, the *duty* of doing so cannot be enforced, except by the authority of the state. No one can be elected to represent any state, except a citizen thereof. Vacancies in the representation of any state are to be supplied under writs of election, issued by the executive of such state. In all this there is not one feature of nationality. The whole arrangement has reference to the states as such, and is carried into effect solely by their authority. The federal government has no agency in the choice of representatives, except only that it may prescribe the 'times, places, and manner of holding elections.' It can neither prescribe the qualifications of the electors, nor impose any penalty upon them for refusing to elect. The states alone can do these things; and, of course, the very existence of the house of representatives depends, as much as does that of the senate, upon the action of the states. A state may withdraw its representation altogether, and congress has no power to prevent it, nor to supply the vacancy thus created. If the house of representatives were national, in any practical sense of the term, the 'nation' would have authority to provide for the appointment of its members, to prescribe the qualifications of voters, and to enforce the performance of that duty. All these things the state legislatures can do, within their respective states, and it is obvious that they are strictly national. In order to make the house of representatives equally so, the people of the United States must be so consolidated that the federal government may distribute them, without regard to state boundaries, into numbers, according to the prescribed ratio; so that *all* the people may be represented, and no unrepresented surplus be left in any state. If these things could be done under a federal constitution, there would then be a strict analogy between the popular branches of the federal and state legislatures, and the former might with propriety be considered 'national.' But it is difficult to imagine a national legislature which does not exist under the authority of the nation, and over the very appointment of which the nation, as such, can exert no effective control.

"The second argument is, that the states are not *equally* represented, but each one has a representation proportioned to its population. There is no reason apparent to me, why a league may not be formed among independent sovereignties, giving to each an influence in the management of their common concerns, proportioned to its strength, its wealth, or the interest which it has at stake. This is but simple justice, and the rule ought to prevail in all cases, except where higher considerations disallow it. History abounds with examples of such confederations, one of which I will cite. The states general of the United provinces were strictly a federal body. The council of state had almost exclusively the management and control of all their military and financial concerns; and in that body, Holland and some other provinces had three votes each, whilst some had two, and others only one vote each. Yet it never was supposed that for this reason the United provinces were a consolidated nation. A single example of this sort affords a full illustration of the subject, and renders all farther arguments superfluous.

"It is not, however, from the apportionment of its powers, nor from the modes in which those powers are exercised, that we can determine the true character of a legislative body, in the particular now under consideration. The true rule of decision is found in the manner in which the body is constituted, and that, we have already seen, is in the case before us, federative, and not national.

"We may safely admit, however, that the house of representatives is not federative, and yet contend, with perfect security, that the *legislative department* is so. Congress consists of the house of representatives and senate. Neither is a complete legislature in itself, and neither can pass any law without the concurrence of the other, and as the senate is the peculiar representative of the states, no act of legislation whatever can be performed, without the consent of the states. They hold, therefore, a complete check and control over the powers of the people in this respect, even admitting that those powers are truly and strictly represented in the other branch. It is true that the check is mutual; but if the legislative department were national, there would be no federative feature in it. It cannot be replied with equal propriety, that, if it were federative, there would be no national feature in it.

The question is, whether or not the states have preserved their distinct sovereign characters, in this feature of the constitution. If they have done so, in any part of it, the whole must be considered federative ; because national legislation implies a *unity*, which is absolutely inconsistent with all idea of a confederation ; whereas, there is nothing to prevent the members of a confederation from exerting their several powers, in any form of *joint action* which may seem to them proper.

“ But there is one other provision of the constitution which appears to me to be altogether decisive upon this point. Each state, whatever be its population, is entitled to at least one representative. It may so happen that the unrepresented surplus, in some one state, may be greater than the whole population of some other state, and yet such latter state would be entitled to a representation. Upon what principle is this ? Surely if the house of representatives were national, something like *equality* would be found in the constitution of it. Large surpluses would not be arbitrarily rejected in some places, and smaller numbers not equal to the general ratio, be represented in others. There can be but one reason for this : as the constitution was made by the states, the true principle of the confederation could not be preserved, without giving to each party to the compact a place and influence in each branch of the common legislature. This was due to their perfect *equality* as sovereign states.

“ *The Executive.*—In the election of the president and vice-president, the exclusive agency of the states, as such, is preserved with equal distinctness. These officers are chosen by electors, who are themselves chosen by the people of each state, acting by and for itself, and in such mode as itself may prescribe. The number of electors to which each state is entitled, is equal to the whole number of its representatives and *senators*. This provision is even more federative than that which apportions representation in the house of representatives ; because it adds two to the electors of each state, and, so far places them upon an equality, whatever be their comparative population. The people of each state vote *within* the state and not elsewhere ; and for their own electors and for no others. Each state prescribes the qualifications of its own electors, and can alone compel them to vote. The electors, when chosen, give their votes within their respective states, and at such times and places as the states may respectively prescribe.

“ There is not the least trace of national agency in any part of this proceeding. The federal government can exercise no rightful power in the choice of its own executive. ‘ The people of the United States ’ are equally unseen in that important measure. Neither a majority, nor the whole of them together, can choose a president, except in their character of citizens of the several states. Nay, a president may be constitutionally elected, *with a decided majority of the people against him*. For example : New York has forty-two votes ; Pennsylvania, thirty ; Virginia, twenty-three ; Ohio, twenty-one ; North Carolina, fifteen ; Kentucky, fourteen ; and South Carolina, fifteen. These seven states can give a majority of all the votes, and each may elect its own electors by a majority of only one vote. If we add their minorities to the votes of the other states (supposing those states to be unanimous against the candidate), we may have a president, constitutionally elected, with less than half—perhaps with little more than a fourth—of the people in his favour. It is true that he may also be constitutionally elected, with a majority of the *states*, as such, against him, as the above example shows ; because the states may, as before remarked, properly agree, by the provisions of their compact, that they shall possess influence in this respect, proportioned to their population. But there is no mode, consistent with the true principles of free representative government, by which a minority of those to whom, *en masse*, the elective franchise is confided, can countervail the concurrent and opposing action of the majority. If the president could be chosen by the people of the ‘ United States ’ in the aggregate, instead of by the states, it is difficult to imagine a case in which a majority of those people, concurring in the same vote, could be overbalanced by a minority.

“ All doubt upon this point, however, is removed by another provision of the constitution, touching this subject, if no candidate should receive a majority of votes in the electoral colleges, the house of representatives elects the president from the three candidates who have received the largest electoral vote. In doing this, two-thirds of the states must be present by their representatives, or one of them, and then *they vote by states, all the mem-*

bers from each state giving one vote, and a majority of all the states being necessary to a choice. This is precisely the rule which prevailed in the ordinary legislation of that body, under the articles of confederation, and which proved its federative character, as strongly as any other provision of those articles. Why, then, should this federative principle be preserved, in the election of the president by the house of representatives, if it was designed to abandon it, in the election of the same officer, by the electoral colleges? No good reason for it has yet been assigned, so far as I am informed.

"This view of the subject is still further confirmed by the clause of the constitution relating to impeachments. The power to try the president is vested in the senate alone, that is, in the representatives of the states. There is a strict fitness and propriety in this; for those only, whose officer the president is, should be entrusted with the power to remove him.

"It is believed to be neither a forced nor an unreasonable conclusion, from all this, that the executive department is, in its structure, strictly federative.

"*The Judiciary.*—The judges are nominated by the president, and approved by the senate. Thus, the nominations are made by a federative officer, and the approval and confirmation of them depend on those who are the exclusive representatives of the states, this agency is manifestly federative, and 'the people of the United States' cannot mingle in it, in any form whatever.

"As the constitution is federative in the structure of all three of its great departments, it is equally so, in the power of amendment.

"Congress may propose amendments, 'whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary.' This secures the states against any action upon the subject, by the people at large. In like manner, congress may call a convention for proposing amendments, 'on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states.' It is remarkable that, whether congress or the states act upon the subject, the *same proportion* is required; not less than two-thirds of either being authorised to act. From this it is not unreasonable to conclude, that the convention considered that the *same power* would act in both cases; to wit, the power of the states, who might effect their object either by their separate action as states, or by the action of congress, their common federative agent; but whether they adopted the one mode or the other, not less than two-thirds of them should be authorised to act efficiently.

"The amendments thus proposed 'shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, *when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof*, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by congress.' It is the act of adoption or ratification alone which makes a constitution. In the case before us, the states alone can perform that act. The language of the constitution admits of no doubt, and gives no pretext for double construction. It is not the people of the United States in the aggregate, merely *acting* in their several states, who can ratify amendments. *Three-fourths of the several states* can alone do this. The idea of separate and independent political corporations could not be more distinctly conveyed by any form of words. If the people of the United States, as one people, but acting in their several states, could ratify amendments, then the very language of the constitution requires that *three-fourths of them* shall concur therein. Is it not, then, truly wonderful, that no mode has yet been prescribed to ascertain whether three-fourths of them do concur or not? By what power can the necessary arrangement upon this point be effected? In point of fact, amendments have already been made, in a strict conformity with this provision of the constitution.

"So strongly were the states attached to that perfect equality which their perfect sovereignty implied, and so jealous were they of every attack upon it, that they guarded it, by an express provision of the constitution, against the possibility of overthrow. All other rights they confided to that power of amendment, which they reposed in three-fourths of all the states; but this they refused to entrust, except to the separate, independent and sovereign will of each state; giving to each, in its own case, an absolute negative upon all the rest *

* So absolutely is the federal government dependent on the states for its existence, at all times, that it may be absolutely dissolved, without the least violence, by the simple refusal of a

“The object of the preceding pages has been to show that the constitution is federative, in the power which framed it ; federative in the power which adopted and ratified it ; federative in the power which sustains and keeps it alive ; federative in the power by which alone it can be altered or amended ; and federative in the structure of all its departments. In what respect then can it be justly called a consolidated or national government ?

“We come now to a more particular and detailed examination of the question. ‘Who is the final judge or interpreter in constitutional controversies ?’ Judge Story’s conclusion is, that ‘in all questions of a judicial nature,’ the supreme court of the United States is the final umpire ; and that the *states*, as well as individuals, are absolutely bound by its decisions.

“Whatever comes within the legitimate cognizance of that tribunal it has a right to decide, whether it be a question of the law, or of the constitution ; and no other tribunal can reverse its decision. The constitution which creates the supreme court, creates no other court of superior or appellate jurisdiction to it ; and consequently its decisions are strictly ‘final.’ There is no power *in the same government to which that court belongs*, to reverse or control it, nor are there any means *therein* of resisting its authority. So far, therefore, as the *Federal Constitution* has provided for the subject at all, the supreme court is, beyond question, the final judge or arbiter ; and this, too, whether the jurisdiction which it exercises be legitimate or usurped.

“Let us now inquire *what* ‘constitutional controversies’ the federal courts have authority to decide, and how far its decisions are final and conclusive against all the world.

“The third article of the constitution provides, that ‘the judicial power shall extend to all cases of law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and the treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority ; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction ; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party ; to controversies between two or more states ; between a state and citizens of another state ; between citizens of different states ; between citizens of the same state, claiming lands, under grants of different states ; and between a state and the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.’

“The eleventh amendment provides that, ‘The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.’

“It will be conceded on all hands that the federal courts have no jurisdiction except what is here conferred. The judiciary, as a part of the federal government, derives its powers only from the constitution, which creates that government. The term ‘cases’ implies that the subject matter shall be proper for judicial decision ; and the *parties* between whom alone jurisdiction can be entertained, are specifically enumerated. Beyond these cases, and these parties they have no jurisdiction.

“There is no part of the constitution in which the framers of it have displayed a more jealous care of the rights of the states, than in the limitations of the judicial power. It is remarkable that no power is conferred, except what is absolutely necessary to carry into effect the general design, and accomplish the general object of the states, as independent, confederated states. The federal tribunals cannot take cognizance of any case whatever in which all the states have not an equal and common interest, that a just and impartial decision shall be had. A brief analysis of the provisions of the constitution will make this sufficiently clear.

“Cases ‘arising under the constitution,’ are those in which some right or privilege is denied, which the constitution confers, or something is done which the constitution prohibits, as expressed in the constitution itself. Those which arise ‘under the laws of the United States,’ are such as involve rights or duties which result from the legislation of congress.

part of the states to act. If, for example, a few states, having a majority of electoral votes should refuse to appoint electors of president and vice-president, there would be no constitutional executive, and the whole machinery of the government would stop.

“Cases arising under treaties, made under the authority of the United States, and those ‘affecting ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls,’ could not be properly entrusted to any other than the federal tribunals. Treaties are made under the common authority of all the states, and all alike are bound for the faithful observance of them. Ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls are received under the common authority of all the states, and their duties relate only to matters involving alike the interests of all. The peace of the country and the harmony of its relations with foreign powers, depend, in a peculiar degree, on the good faith with which its duties, in reference to these subjects, are discharged. Hence it would be unsafe to entrust them to any other than their own control; and even if this were not so, it would be altogether incongruous to appeal to a state tribunal, to enforce the rights, the obligations, or the duties of the United States. For like reasons, cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction are properly entrusted to the federal tribunals.

“Controversies, to which the United States shall be a party, should, upon general principles, belong only to her own courts. There would be neither propriety nor justice in permitting any one state to decide a case in which all the states are parties. In like manner, those between two or more states—between a state and citizens of another state, where the state is plaintiff (it cannot *be sued*), and between citizens of different states, could not be entrusted to the tribunals of any particular state interested, or whose citizens are interested therein, without danger of injustice and partiality. Jurisdiction is given to the federal courts, in these cases, simply because they are equally interested for all the parties, are the common courts of all the parties, and therefore are presumed to form the only fair and impartial tribunal between them. The same reasoning applies to cases between citizens of the same state, claiming lands under grants of different states. Cases of this sort involve questions of the sovereign power of the states, and could not, with any show of propriety, be entrusted to the decision of either of them, interested, as it would be, to sustain its own acts against those of the sister state. The jurisdiction in this case is given upon the same principles which gave it in cases between two or more states.

“Controversies between a state or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects, depend on a different principle, but one equally affecting the common rights and interests of all the states. A foreign state cannot, of course, be sued; she can appear in our courts only as plaintiff. Yet, in whatever form such controversies, or those affecting the citizens of a foreign state, may arise, all the states have a deep interest that an impartial tribunal, satisfactory to the foreign party, should be provided. The denial of justice is a legitimate, and not an unfruitful, cause of war. As no state can be involved in war without involving all the rest, they all have a common interest to withdraw from the state tribunals a jurisdiction which may bring them within the danger of that result. All the states are alike bound to render justice to foreign states and their people; and this common responsibility gives them a right to demand that every question involving it shall be decided by their common judicatory.

“The tenth article of the amendments of the constitution provides that, ‘The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.’ The powers thus reserved, are not only reserved against the federal government in whole, but against each and every department thereof. The judiciary is no more excepted out of the reservation than is the legislature or the executive. Of what nature, then, are those reserved powers? Not the powers, if any such there be, which are possessed by all the states together, for the reservation is to ‘the states *respectively*’; that is, to each state separately and distinctly. Now we can form no idea of any power possessed by a state as such, and independent of every other state, which is not, in its nature, a sovereign power. Every power so reserved, therefore, must be of such a character, that each state may exercise it, without the least reference or responsibility to any other state whatever. It is incident to every sovereignty to be alone the judge of its own compacts and agreements. No other state or assemblage of states, has the least right to interfere with it, in this respect, and cannot do so without impairing its sovereignty. The constitution of the United States is but the agreement which each state has made, with each and all the other states, and is not distinguishable, in the principle we are examining, from any other agreement between sovereign states. Each state, therefore, has a right to interpret that agreement for itself, unless it has

clearly waived that right in favour of another power. That the right is not waived in the case under consideration, is apparent from the fact already stated, that if the judiciary be the sole judges of the extent of their own powers, their powers are universal, and the enumeration in the constitution is idle and useless.

“The federal government is the creature of the states. It is not a party to the constitution, but the result of it—the creation of that agreement which was made by the states as parties. It is a mere agent entrusted with limited powers for certain specific objects; which powers and objects are enumerated in the constitution. Shall the agent be permitted to judge of the extent of his own powers, without reference to his constituents? To a certain extent he is compelled to do this, in the very act of exercising them, but this is always in subordination to the authority by whom his powers were conferred.

“Considering the nature of our system of government, the states ought to be, and I presume always will be, extremely careful not to interpose their sovereign power against the decisions of the supreme court, in any case where that court clearly has jurisdiction. Of this character, are the cases cited at the commencement of this inquiry; such, for example, as those between two states, those affecting foreign ministers, those of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, &c. As to all these subjects, the jurisdiction is clear, and no state can have any interest to dispute it.

“According to the principles of all our institutions, sovereignty does not reside in any government whatever, neither state nor federal. Government is regarded merely as the agent of those who create it, and subject in all respect to their will. In the states, the sovereign power is in the people of the states respectively; and the sovereign power of the United States would, for the same reason, be in ‘the people of the United States,’ if there were any such people, known as a single nation, and the framers of the federal government.

“The true sovereignty of the United States, therefore, is in the states, and not in the people of the United States, nor in the federal government. That government is but the agent through whom a portion of this sovereign power is exerted; possessing no sovereignty itself, and exerting no power, except such only as its constituents have conferred on it. In ascertaining what these powers are, it is obviously proper, that we should look only to the grant from which they are derived. The agent can claim nothing for itself, and on its own account. The constitution is a compact, and the parties to it are each state, with each and every other state. The federal government is not a party, but is the mere creature of the agreement between the states as parties. Each state is both grantor and grantee, receiving from each and all the other states, precisely what, in its turn, it concedes to each and all of them. The rule, therefore, that the words are to be taken most strongly in favour of the grantee, cannot apply, because, as each state is both grantor and grantee; it would give exactly as much as it would take away. The only mode, therefore, by which we may be certain to do no injustice to the intentions of the parties, is by taking their *words* as the true exponents of their meaning.

“The lovers of a strong consolidated government, have laboured strenuously, and, I fear, with too much success, to remove every available restriction upon the powers of congress. *The tendency of their principles is to establish that legislative omnipotence, which is the fundamental principle of the British constitution, and which renders every form of written constitution idle and useless.* They suffer themselves to be too much attracted by the splendours of a great central power. Dazzled by these splendours, they lose sight of the more useful, yet less ostentatious purposes of the state governments, and seem to be unconscious that, in building up this huge temple of federal power, they necessarily destroy those less pretending structures, from which alone they derive shelter, protection, and safety. This is the *ignis fatuus* which has so often deceived nations, and betrayed them into the slough of despotism. On all such, the impressive warning of Patrick Henry, drawn from the lessons of all experience, would be utterly lost. ‘Those nations who have gone in search of grandeur, power, and splendour, have also fallen a sacrifice, and been the victims of their own folly. While they acquired those visionary blessings, they lost their freedom.’ The consolidationists forget these wholesome truths, in their eagerness to invest the federal government, with every power which is necessary to realise their visions in a great and splendid nation. Hence they do not discriminate between the several classes of

federal powers, but contend for all of them, with the same blind and devoted zeal. It is remarkable that, in the exercise of all those functions of the federal government which concern our foreign relations, scarcely a case can be supposed requiring the aid of any implied or incidental power, as to which any serious doubt can arise. 'The powers of that government, as to all such matters, are so distinctly and plainly pointed out, in the very letter of the constitution; and they are so ample for all the purposes contemplated, that it is only necessary to understand them according to their plain meaning, and to exercise them according to their acknowledged extent. No auxiliaries are required; the government has only to go on in the execution of its trusts, with powers at once ample and unquestioned. It is only in matters which concern our domestic policy, that any serious struggle for federal power has ever arisen, or is likely to arise. Here, that love of splendour and display, which deludes so large a portion of mankind, unites with that self-interest by which *all* mankind are swayed, in aggrandising the federal government, and adding to its powers. He who thinks it better to belong to a splendid and showy government, than to a free and happy one, naturally seeks to surround all our institutions with a gaudy pageantry, which belongs only to aristocratic or monarchical systems. But the great struggle is for those various and extended powers from the exercise of which *avarice* may expect its gratifications. Hence the desire for a profuse expenditure of public money, and hence the thousand schemes under the name of internal improvements, by means of which hungry contractors may plunder the public treasury, and wily speculators prey upon the less skilful and cunning. And hence, too, another sort of legislation, the most vicious of the whole, which, *professing* a fair and legitimate object of public good, looks, *really*, only to the promotion of private interests. It is thus that *classes* are united in supporting the powers of government, and an interest is created strong enough to carry all measures and sustain all abuses.

"Let it be borne in mind that, as to all these subjects of domestic concern, there is no absolute necessity that the federal government should possess any power at all. They are all such as the *state* governments are perfectly competent to manage; and the *most* competent, because each state is the best judge of what is useful or necessary to itself. There is, then, no room to complain of any want of power to do whatever the interests of the people require to be done.

"Here, then, are all the powers which it is necessary that government should possess; not lodged in one place, but distributed; not the power of the state governments, nor of the federal government, but the aggregate of their several and respective powers. In the exercise of those functions which the state governments are forbidden to exercise, the federal government need not look beyond the letter of its charter for any needful power; and in the exercise of any other function, there is still less necessity that it should do so; because, whatever power that government does not plainly possess, is plainly possessed by the state governments.

"A clause in the constitution allows representation to three-fifths of the slaves.* Judge Story considers the compromise upon this subject as unjust in principle, and decidedly injurious to the people of the non-slave-holding states. Mr. John Adams was of a different opinion. He said, in the convention which framed the constitution, 'that as to the numbers of the people being taken as the index of the wealth of the state, it was of no consequence by what name you called your people, whether by that of freemen or slaves; that in some countries the labouring poor are called freemen, in others they are called slaves; but that the difference as to the state was imaginary. That five hundred freemen would produce no more profits for the payment of taxes than five hundred slaves. Therefore the state in which the labourers are called freemen should be taxed no more than that in which the labourers are called slaves.

"If slaves are people, as forming the measure of national wealth, and, consequently, of taxation; and if taxation and representation be placed upon the same principle, and regulated by the same ratio, then that slaves are people, in fixing the ratio of representation, is a logical *sequitur* which no one can possibly deny.

"But it is objected that slaves are *property*, and, for that reason are not more entitled

* The slaves have no voice in elections.

to representation than any other species of property. But they are also *people*, and, upon analogous principles, are entitled to representation as people. It is in this character alone that the non-slave-holding states have a right to consider them as has already been shown, and in this character alone is it *just* to consider them. We ought to presume that every slave occupies a place which, but for his presence, would be occupied by a free white man, and, if this were so, every one, and not three-fifths only, would be represented; but the states who hold no slaves have no right to complain, that this is not the case in other states, so long as the labour of the slave contributes as much to the common stock of productive industry, as the labour of the white man. It is enough that a state possesses a certain number of *people*, of living rational beings, we are not to inquire whether they be black, or white, or tawny, nor what are their peculiar relations among one another. If the slave of the south be property, of what nature is that property, and what kind of interest has the owner in it? He has a right to the profits of the slave's labour. And so the master of an indented apprentice has a right to the profits of *his* labour. It is true, one holds the right for the life of the slave, and the other only for a time limited in the apprentice's indentures; but this is a difference only in the *extent*, and not in the *nature* of the interest. It is also true, that the owner of a slave has, in most states, a right to *sell him*; but this is only because the laws of the state authorise him to do so. And, in like manner, the indentures of an apprentice may be transferred if the laws of the state will allow it. In all these respects, therefore, the slave and the indented apprentice stand upon precisely the same principle. To a certain extent they are both property, and neither of them can *be regarded as a free man*; and if the one be not entitled to representation, the other also should be denied that right. Whatever be the difference of their relations to the separate members of the community, in the eye of that community they are both *people*. Here, again, Mr. Adams shall speak for me; and our country has produced few men who could speak more wisely: 'A slave, may indeed, from the custom of speech, be more properly called the wealth of his master, than the free labourer might be called the wealth of his employer; but as to the state both are equally its wealth, and should therefore equally add to the quota of its tax.' Yes; and consequently, they should equally add to the quota of its *representation*.

"It is remarkable that the constitution is wholly silent in regard to the power of removal from office. The *appointing* power is in the president and senate; the president nominating, and the senate confirming. But the power to *remove* from office, seems never to have been contemplated by the convention at all, for they have given no directions whatever upon the subject. The consequence has been precisely such as might have been expected, a severe contest for the possession of that power, and the ultimate usurpation of it, by that department of the government to which it ought never to be entrusted. In the absence of all precise directions upon the subject, it would seem that the power to remove ought to attend the power to appoint; for those whose duty it is to fill the offices of the country with competent incumbents, cannot possibly execute that trust fully and well, unless they have power to correct their own errors and mistakes, by removing the unworthy, and substituting better men in their places. This, I have no doubt, is the true construction of our constitution. It was for a long time strenuously contended for by a large party in the country, and was finally yielded, rather to the confidence which the country reposed in the virtues of Washington, than to any conviction that it was properly an executive power, belonging only to the president. It is true of Washington alone, of all the truly great of the earth, that he never inflicted an injury upon his country, except only such as proceeded from the excess of his own virtues. His known patriotism, wisdom, and purity, inspired us with a confidence, and a feeling of security against the abuses of power, which has led to the establishment of many precedents, dangerous to public liberty in the hands of any other man.

"Another striking imperfection of the constitution, as respects the executive department, is found in the veto power. *The right to forbid the people to pass whatever laws they please, is the right to deprive them of self government.**

* So thoroughly is this right of the people to make the laws understood in the British parliament, that the royal disallowance of any bill is never contemplated; and, although the royal prerogative of disallowance still exists, *de jure*, it has long ceased *de facto*, by *disusage*.

"The re-eligibility of the president, from term to term, is the necessary source of numberless abuses; at present there is no danger of this. *Presidents are now made, not by the free suffrages of the people, but by party management*, and there are always more than one in the successful party, who are looking to their own turn in the presidential office. It is too early, yet, for a monopoly of that high honour; but the time will come, within the natural course of things, when the actual incumbent will find means to buy off opposition, and to insure a continuance in office, by prostituting the trusts which belong to it. We cannot hope to be free from the evils which result from an abuse of presidential power and patronage, until that officer shall be eligible only for *one* term, a long term if you please; and until he shall be rendered more easily, and directly responsible to the power which appoints him."

ADDRESS OF GEORGE WASHINGTON,

PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, TO HIS FELLOW-CITIZENS, ON DECLINING BEING CONSIDERED A CANDIDATE FOR THEIR FUTURE SUFFRAGES.

FRIENDS AND FELLOW-CITIZENS.—The period for a new election of citizen to administer the executive government of the United States being not far distant, and the time actually arrived, when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed to decline being considered among the number of those, out of whom a choice is to be made.

I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped, that it would have been much earlier in my power consistently with motives, which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my service, that in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have, *with good intentions, contributed towards the organisation and administration of the government, the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable*. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience, in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself; and every day the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more, *that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome*. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country for the many honours it has conferred

upon me ; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me ; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, *let it always be remembered to our praise, and as an instructive example in our annals, that under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious, vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging,—in situations, in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism,—the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans, by which they were effected.* Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to the grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows, that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence—that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained—that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these states, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation, and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection, and adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

Here, perhaps, I ought to stop. But solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments, which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all-important to the permanency of your felicity as a people. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only feel in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motive to bias his counsel. Nor can I forget, as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion.

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of government which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. It is justly so ; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad ; of your safety ; of your prosperity ; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But, as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth ; as this is the point in your political fortress, against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness ; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it ; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the palladium of your political safety and prosperity, watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety ; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned ; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens, by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of *American*, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have, in a common cause, fought and triumphed together ; the independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint counsels, and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings, and successes.

But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest. Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the union of the whole.

The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise, and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *South* in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow, and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated; and while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East* in a like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications, by land and water, will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort; and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the *secure* enjoyment of indispensable *outlets* for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interests as *one nation*. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While then every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in union, all the parts combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts, greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and what is of inestimable value, they must derive from union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighbouring countries, not tied together by the same government; which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues would stimulate and embitter. Hence, likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to republican liberty; in this sense it is, that your union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the Union as a primary object of a patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere?—Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation, in such a case, were criminal. We are authorised to hope that a proper organisation of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. It is well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to union, affecting all parts of our country, while experiment shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who, in any quarter, may endeavour to weaken its hands.

In contemplating the causes which may disturb our union, it occurs as matter of serious concern, that any ground should be furnished for characterising parties, by *geographical* discriminations—*Northern* and *Southern*—*Atlantic* and *Western*; whence designing men may endeavour to excite a belief, that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence within particular districts is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart-burnings which spring from these misrepresentations: they tend to render alien to each other, those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection.

To the efficacy and permanency of your union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however, strict, between the parts, can be an adequate substitute; they will inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances, in all times, have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former for an intimate union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of your own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation, and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the

distribution of its powers, uniting security with energy, and containing, within itself, a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true liberty. The basis of our political systems is the right of the people to make and to alter their constitutions of government. But, the constitution which at any time exists, till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacred and obligatory upon all. *The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government, presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.*

All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real character to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency.

Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you steadily discountenance irregular opposition to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretexts.

In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of government, as of other human institutions; and remember, especially, that for the efficient management of your common interest, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigour as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty, is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian.

Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who would labour to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them.

It is substantially true that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it, is to use it as sparingly as possible, avoiding occasions of expense, by cultivating peace, but remembering also, that timely disbursements, to prepare for danger, frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions, in time of peace, to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives; but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue; that to have revenue there must be taxes; and no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment inseparable from the selection of the proper objects (which is always a choice of difficulties), ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies may, at any time, dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all. Religion and morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and (at no distant period) a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary

advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others, should be excluded; and that, in place of them, just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated.

Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence (I conjure you to believe me, fellow-citizens), the jealousy of a free people ought to be *constantly* awake; since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of republican government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial; else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it.

The great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little *political* connexion as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith. Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality, we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own, to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humour, or caprice?

It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronising infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary, and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, in a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony, and a liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favours or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying, by gentle means, the streams of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing, with the powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be, from time to time, abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view, that it is folly in one nation to look for disinterested favours from another; that it must pay, with a portion of its independence, for whatever it may accept under that character; that by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favours, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect or calculate upon real favours from nation to nation. It is an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I

dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish ; that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations ; but, if I may even flatter myself, that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good ; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigue, to guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism ; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare by which they have been dictated.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of the 22nd of April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your representatives, in both houses of congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me ; uninfluenced by any attempts to deter or divert me from it.

After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest to take, a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend on me, to maintain it, with moderation, perseverance, and firmness.

Though in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error, I am nevertheless, too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils, to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence ; and that, after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations, I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat, in which I promise myself to realise, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow-citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government—the ever favourite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labours, and dangers.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

United States, September 17, 1796.

COURTS OF LAW, OR JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED STATES.

The United States vest the judicial authority in one supreme court, forty-two district courts, and ten circuit courts, including the local circuit court of the district of Columbia. The supreme court has one chief justice, and six associate justices. It is held annually in the city of Washington ; and each of the justices attends a circuit, comprising two or more districts. A justice of the supreme court and the judge of the district preside in each circuit court.

A district court is presided in by the district judge alone. Appeals are allowed from the district to the circuit courts in cases where the matter in dispute, exclusive of costs, exceeds the sum or value of fifty dollars ; and from the circuit courts to the supreme court, in cases where the matter in dispute, exclusive of costs, exceeds the sum or value of two thousand dollars. In some cases, where the inconvenience of attending a court by a justice of the supreme court is very great, the district court is invested with the jurisdiction of a circuit court. Each state forms a district, for holding district and circuit courts, with the exception of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Tennessee, Louisiana, and Alabama, each of which is divided into two districts. There are, also, territorial courts. These change that character on the territory assuming the rank of a state. In the district of Columbia there is also a circuit court, which exercises, under the authority of congress, common law and equity jurisdiction.

Each court has a clerk, a public attorney, or prosecutor, and a marshal ; all appointed by the president of the United States, with the exception of the clerks, who are named by the courts. The compensation of the judges is fixed by law ; that of the clerks, attorneys, and marshals, con-

sists of fees, and in a few instances, as it regards attorneys and marshals, of a yearly salary of about 200 dollars. The appointments are made by the president, by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

By an act of congress (15th of May, 1820), district attorneys are appointed for four years, removable at pleasure. Marshals have always held their offices for four years, removable at pleasure. The judges hold their offices during good behaviour, and can be removed only on impeachment.

The Supreme Court of the United States has exclusive jurisdiction of all controversies of a civil nature where a state is a party, except between a state and its citizens; and except also between a state and citizens of other states, or aliens; in which latter case it has original, but not exclusive, jurisdiction. It has, exclusively, all such jurisdiction of suits or proceedings against ambassadors or other public ministers, or their domestics or domestic servants, as a court of law can have or exercise consistently with the law of nations; and original, but not exclusive, jurisdiction of all suits brought by ambassadors, or other public ministers, in which a consul or vice-consul is a party. The supreme court has appellate jurisdiction from final decrees and judgments of the circuit courts in cases where the matter in dispute, exclusive of costs, exceeds the sum or value of 2000 dollars, and from final decrees and judgments of the highest courts of the several states in certain cases, as hereinafter mentioned. It has power to issue writs of prohibition to the district courts, when proceeding as courts of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, and writs of *mandamus* in cases warranted by the principles and usages of law, to any courts appointed, or persons holding office, under the authority of the United States. The trial of issues, in fact, in the supreme court, in all actions at law against citizens of the United States, is by jury.

A final judgment or decree in any suit, in the highest court of law or equity of a state in which a decision in the suit could be had, where is drawn in question the validity of a treaty or statute of, or an authority exercised under, the United States, and the decision is against their validity; or where is drawn in question the validity of a statute of, or an authority exercised under any state, on the ground of their being repugnant to the constitution, treaties, or laws of the United States, and the decision is in favour of such their validity; or where is drawn in question the construction of any clause of the constitution, or of a treaty or statute of, or commission held under the United States, and the decision is against the title, right, privilege, or exemption, specially set up or claimed by either party, under such clause of the constitution, treaty, statute, or commission; may be re-examined, and reversed or affirmed, in the Supreme Court of the United States, upon a writ of error; the citation being signed by the chief justice, or judge, or chancellor, of the court rendering or passing the judgment or decree complained of, or by a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, in the same manner, and under the same regulations, and the writ has the same effect, as if the judgment or decree complained of had been rendered or passed in a circuit court; and the proceeding upon the reversal is also the same, except that the supreme court, instead of remanding the cause for a final decision, may, at their discretion, if the cause shall have been once remanded before, proceed to a final decision of the same, and award execution. But no other error can be assigned or regarded as a ground of reversal in any such case, than such as appears on the face of the record, and immediately respects the before-mentioned questions of validity or construction of the said constitution, treaties, statutes, commissions, or authorities, in dispute.

Mr. Upshur observes that, "Sovereign nations do not ask their judges what are their rights, nor do they limit their powers by judicial precedents. Still less do they entrust these important subjects to judicial tribunals not their own, and, least of all, to the tribunals of that power against which their own power is asserted. It would have been a gross inconsistency in the states of our union to do this, since they have shown, in every part of their compact with one another, the most jealous care of their separate sovereignty and independence. It is true they have agreed to be bound by the decisions of federal tribunals in certain specified cases, and it is not to be doubted, that so long as they desire the continuance of their present union, they will *feel* themselves bound, in every case which comes plainly within their agreement. There is no necessity to call in the aid of the supreme court to ascertain to what subjects, and how far, that agreement extends. So far as it is plain, it will be strictly observed, as national faith and honour require; there is no other guarantee. So far as it is not plain, or so far as it may be the will and pleasure of any state to deny or to resist it, the utter impotency of courts of justice to settle the difficulty will be manifested beyond all doubt. They will be admonished of their responsibility to the power which created them. *The States* created them: they are but an emanation of the sovereign power of the states, and can neither limit nor control that power.

"Ordinarily, the judiciary are the proper interpreters of the powers of government, but they interpret in subordination to the power which created them. In governments established by an aggregate people, such as are those of the states, a proper corrective is always found in the people themselves. If the judicial interpretation confer too much or too little power on the government, a ready remedy is found in an amendment of the constitution. But in our federal system the evil is without remedy, if the federal courts be allowed to fix the limits of federal

power with reference to those of the states. It would place every thing in the state governments, except their mere existence, at the mercy of a single department of the federal government. The maxim, *stare decisis*, is not always adhered to by our courts; their own decisions are not held to be absolutely binding upon themselves. They may establish a right to-day and unsettle it to-morrow. A decision of the supreme court might arrest a state in the full exercise of an important and necessary power, which a previous decision of the same court had ascertained that she possessed. Thus the powers of the state governments, as to many important objects, might be kept indeterminate and constantly liable to change, so that they would lose their efficiency, and forfeit all title to confidence and respect. It is true that in this case too, there is a *possible* corrective in the power to amend the constitution. But that power is not with the aggrieved state alone; it could be exerted only in connexion with other states, whose aid she might not be able to command. And even if she could command it, the process would be too slow to afford effectual relief. It is impossible to imagine that any free and sovereign state ever designed to surrender her power of self-protection in a case like this, or ever meant to authorise any other power to reduce her to a situation so helpless and contemptible. This want of uniformity and fixedness in the decisions of courts renders the supreme court the most unfit umpire that could be selected, between the federal government and the states, on questions involving their respective rights and powers. Suppose that the United States should resolve to cut a canal through the territory of Virginia, and being resisted, the supreme court should decide that they had a right to do so. Suppose that when the work was completed, a similar attempt should be made in Massachusetts, and being resisted, the same court should decide that they had *no* right to do so. The effect would be that the United States would possess a right in one state, which it did not possess in another. Suppose that Virginia should impose a tax on the arsenals, dockyards, &c., of the United States within her territory, and that, in a suit to determine the right, the supreme court should decide in favour of it. Suppose that a like attempt should be made by Massachusetts, and, upon a similar appeal to that court, it should decide *against* it; Virginia would enjoy a right in reference to the United States, which would be denied to Massachusetts. Other cases may be supposed involving like consequences, and showing the absurdity of submitting to courts of justice the decision of controversies between governments, involving the extent and nature of their powers.

"I know that the decisions of the supreme court on constitutional questions have been very consistent and uniform; but that affords no proof that they will be so through all time to come. It is enough for the purposes of the present argument that they *may be* otherwise.

"Yielding, therefore, to the supreme court all the jurisdiction and authority which properly belongs to it, we cannot safely or wisely repose in it the vast trust of ascertaining, defining, or limiting the sovereign powers of the states."

Circuit Courts.—The circuit courts of the United States have original cognisance, concurrent with the courts of the several states, of all suits of a civil nature, at common law, or in equity, where the matter in dispute exceeds, exclusive of costs, the sum or value of 500 dollars, and the United States are plaintiffs or petitioners, or an alien is a party, or the suit is between a citizen of the state where the suit is brought and a citizen of another state. They have exclusive cognisance of all crimes and offences cognisable under the authority of the United States (except where the laws of the United States otherwise direct), and concurrent jurisdiction with the districts courts of the crimes and offences cognisable therein. But no person can be arrested in one district for trial in another, in any civil action, before a circuit or district court. No civil suit can be brought, before either of the said courts, against an inhabitant of the United States, by any original process, in any other district than that whereof he is an inhabitant, or in which he shall be found at the time of serving the writ; and no district or circuit court has cognisance of any suit to recover the contents of any promissory note, or other *chose* in action, in favour of an assignee, unless a suit might have been prosecuted in such court to recover the said contents if no assignment had been made, except in cases of foreign bills of exchange.

The circuit courts have appellate jurisdiction from final decrees and judgments of the district courts, in all cases where the matter in dispute exceeds the sum or value of fifty dollars. They also have jurisdiction of certain cases, which may be removed into them before trial from the state courts. But no district judge (sitting in a circuit court) can give a vote in any case of appeal, or error, from his own decision; but may assign the reasons of such his decision.—The trial of issues, in fact, in the circuit courts in all suits, except those of equity and of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, is by jury.

District Courts.—The district courts of the United States, have, exclusively of the courts of the several states, cognisance of all crimes and offences that are cognisable under the authority of the United States, committed within their respective districts, or upon the high seas, where no other punishment than whipping, not exceeding thirty stripes, a fine not exceeding 100 dollars, or a term of imprisonment not exceeding six months, is to be inflicted, and also have exclusive original cognisance of all civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, including all seizures under laws of impost, navigation, or trade, of the United States, where the seizures are

made on waters which are navigable from the sea by vessels of ten or more tons burthen, within their respective districts, as well as upon the high seas, saving to suitors, in all cases, the right of a common law remedy, where the common law is competent to give it; and also have exclusive original cognisance of all seizures, on land or other waters than as aforesaid, made, and of all suits for penalties and forfeitures incurred, under the laws of the United States. And they also have cognisance, concurrent with the courts of the several states, or their circuit courts, as the case may be, of all causes where an alien sues for a *tort* only in violation of the law of nations, or a treaty of the United States. They also have cognisance, concurrent as last-mentioned, of all suits at common law, where the United States sue, and the matter in dispute amounts, exclusive of costs, to the sum or value of 100 dollars. They also have jurisdiction, exclusively of the courts of the several states, of all suits against consuls or vice-consuls, except for offences above the description aforesaid. The trial of issues, in fact, in the district courts, in all causes except civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, is by jury.

An act of the 18th of December, 1812, requires the district and territorial judges of the United States to reside within the districts and territories, respectively, for which they are appointed; and makes it unlawful for any judge, appointed under the authority of the United States, to exercise the profession or employment of counsel or attorney, or to be engaged in the practice of the law. And any person offending against the injunction or prohibition of this act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour.

The salaries of judges, &c., of the supreme court are:—chief justice, 5000 dollars; eight associate judges, each 4500 dollars; attorney-general, 4000 dollars; reporter, 1000 dollars; clerk, fees, &c.

The circuit courts are presided over by judges of the supreme courts, and without any additional salary.

LIST of District Courts and Compensations of Judges, Attorneys-general, and Marshals.

JUDGES.		ATTOR-NEYS.	MAR-SHALS.	JUDGES.		ATTOR-NEYS.	MAR-SHALS.
DISTRICTS.	Com-pensa-tion.	Compensa-tion.	Compensa-tion.	DISTRICTS.	Com-pensa-tion.	Compensa-tion.	Compensa-tion.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.		dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Maine	1800	200 and fees	200 and fees	Mississippi, S. Dist.	2000	200 and fees	200 and fees
New Hampshire	1000	do.	do.	Louisiana, E. Dist.	3000	600 and fees	do.
Massachusetts	2500	fees	fees	Louisiana, W. Dist.		200 and fees	do.
Connecticut	1500	200 and fees	200 and fees	Tennessee, E. Dist.	1500	do.	do.
Rhode Island	1500	do.	do.	Tennessee, M. Dist.		do.	do.
Vermont	1200	do.	do.	Tennessee, W. Dist.		do.	do.
N. District, N. Y.	2000	do.	do.	Kentucky	1500	do.	do.
S. District, N. Y.	3500	fees	fees	Ohio	1000	do.	do.
New Jersey	1500	200 and fees	200 and fees	Indiana	1000	do.	do.
E. District, Penn.	2500	fees	fees	Illinois	1000	do.	do.
W. District, Penn.	1800	200 and fees	200 and fees	Missouri	1200	do.	do.
Delaware	1500	do.	do.	Arkansas	2000	do.	do.
Maryland	2000	fees	fees	Michigan	1500	do.	do.
Virginia, E. Dist.	1800	200 and fees	200 and fees	Florida, E. Dist.	2300	do.	do.
Virginia, W. Dist.	1600	do.	do.	Florida, N. Dist.	1800	do.	do.
North Carolina	2000	do.	400 and fees	Florida, W. Dist.	1800	do.	do.
South Carolina	2500	fees	fees	Florida, S. Dist.	2300	do.	do.
Georgia	2500	200 and fees	200 and fees	Florida, Apalach. Dist. .	1800	do.	do.
Alabama, N. Dist.	2500	do.	do.	Wisconsin	1800	250 and fees	do.
Alabama, S. Dist.		do.	do.	Iowa	1800	do.	do.
Mississippi, N. Dist.	2000	do.	do.	District Colombia	2700	fees	fees

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF EACH STATE OF THE AMERICAN UNION.*

TABLE exhibiting the Seats of Government, the Times of Holding the Election of State Officers ; and the Times of the Meeting of the Legislatures of the several States, the Salaries, Terms of Office, and the Number of Senators and Representatives in the State Legislatures, with their respective Terms.

STATES.	Seats of Government.	Times of Holding Elections.	Times of the Meeting of the Legislatures.	Governor's Salary.	Govt. Term of Years.	Senators.	Term of Years.	Representatives.	Term of Years.
Maine.....	Augusta.....	2d Mon. in Sept.	1st Wed. in Jan.	1500	1	31	1	151	1
N. Hampshire..	Concord	2d Tues. in March	1st Wed. in June.....	1200	1	12	1	250	1
Vermont	Montpelier	1st Tues. in Sept.	2d Thurs. in Oct.	750	1	30	1	230	1
Massachusetts..	Boston	2d Mon. in Nov.	1st Wed. in Jan.	2500	1	40	1	356	1
Rhode Island ...	{ Providence } { & Newport }	1st Wed. in April	{ 1st Tues. in May } { Last Mon. in Oct. }	400	1	31	1	69	1
Connecticut	Hart. & N. Hav.	1st Mon. in April.....	1st Wed. in May	1100	1	21	1	215	1
New York	Albany.....	1st Mon. in Nov.	1st Tues. in Jan.	4000	2	32	4	128	1
New Jersey	Trenton	2d Tues. in Oct.	4th Tues. in Oct.	2000	1	18	1	58	1
Pennsylvania ..	Harrisburg	2d Tues. in Oct.	1st Tues. in Jan.	4000	3	33	3	100	1
Delaware.....	Dover.....	2d Tuesday in Nov.....	1st Tuesday in Jan. <i>bienn.</i>	1333½	3	9	4	21	2
Maryland.....	Anapolis	1st Wednesday in Oct...	last Monday in December.	4200	3	21	5	82	1
Virginia.....	Richmond.....	4th Thursday in April...	1st Monday in December.	3333½	3	32	4	134	1
N. Carolina.....	Raleigh.....	Commonly in August....	2d Monday in Nov. <i>bienn.</i>	2000	2	50	2	120	2
S. Carolina.....	Columbia.....	2d Monday in Oct.....	4th Monday in Nov.	3500	2	45	4	124	2
Georgia	Milledgeville...	1st Monday in Oct.....	1st Monday in Nov. <i>bienn.</i>	3500	2	47	1	130	1
Alabama.....	Tuscaloosa.....	1st Monday in Aug.....	1st Monday in December..	3500	2	33	3	100	1
Mississippi	Jackson	1st Mon. & Tues. in Nov.	1st Monday in Jan. <i>bienn.</i>	3000	2	30	4	91	2
Louisiana.....	New Orleans...	1st Monday in July	1st Monday in January...	6000	4	17	4	60	2
Arkansas	Little Rock.....	1st Monday in Oct.....	1st Monday in Nov. <i>bienn.</i>	2000	4	21	4	64	2
Tennessee.....	Nashville	1st Thursday in Aug....	1st Monday in Oct. <i>bienn.</i>	2000	2	25	2	75	2
Kentucky.....	Frankfort.....	1st Monday in Aug.	1st Monday in December.	2500	4	38	4	100	1
Ohio	Columbus	2d Tuesday in Oct.	1st Monday in December.	1500	2	36	2	72	1
Michigan.....	Detroit.....	1st Monday in Nov.	1st Monday in January...	1500	2	18	2	53	1
Indiana	Indianapolis...	1st Monday in Aug.	1st Monday in December.	1500	3	30	3	62	1
Illinois.....	Springfield	1st Monday in Aug.....	1st Monday in Dec. <i>bienn.</i>	1000	4	40	4	91	2
Missouri.....	Jefferson City...	1st Monday in Aug.....	1st Monday in Nov. <i>bienn.</i>	1500	4	18	4	49	2
Florida.....				2500	3	15	2	29	1
Wisconsin.....				2500	3	13	2	26	1
Iowa.....				2500	3	..	..	26	1

NOTE.—The common law of England was adopted by the republic after the revolution ; and although altered and modified by acts of congress, it may be still considered as the text-book of the American lawyer.

In all the States except New Jersey, Virginia, and South Carolina, the governor is voted for by the people ; and if no one has a majority of all the votes, in the states in which such a majority is required, the legislature elects to the office of governor, one of the candidates voted for by the people.

I. MAINE.

In 1652, the inhabitants of Maine were placed under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts. From that time the territory formed a part of the colony and afterwards of the state of Massachusetts, as the *District of Maine*, until erected, in the year 1820, into an independent state.

The constitution of this state was formed in 1819, and went into operation in 1820.

The Legislative Power is vested in a senate and a house of representatives, both elected annually by the people, on the second Monday in September.

The number of representatives cannot be less than 100, nor more than 200. A town having 1500 inhabitants is entitled to send one representative ; having 3750, two ; 6775, three ; 10,500, four ; 15,000, five ; 20,250, six ; 26,250, seven ; but no town can ever be entitled to more than seven representatives.—The number of senators cannot be less than twenty, nor more than thirty-one.

The legislature meets at *Augusta*, annually, on the first Wednesday in January.

The Executive Power is vested in a governor, elected annually by the people, on the second Monday in September : his term of office commences on the first Wednesday in January. A council of seven members is elected annually on the first Wednesday in January, by joint ballot of the senators and representatives, to advise the governor in the executive part of government.

* Each state is within itself a government, with its particular laws, revenue, and expenditure. In the finances of the United States, as a federal government, the state revenues and expenses should not be overlooked ; for, although not entered in the general budget, yet form equally a part of the general public burdens and expenditures.

The Right of Suffrage is granted to every male citizen aged twenty-one years or upwards (excepting paupers, persons under guardianship, and Indians not taxed), having had his residence established in the state for the term of three months next preceding an election.

The Judicial Power is vested in a supreme judicial court, and such other courts as the legislature may, from time to time, establish. All the judges are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the council: they hold their offices during good behaviour, but not beyond the age of seventy years.

Salaries of the Officers of Government.—Governor, 1500 dollars; secretary of state, 900 dollars; treasurer of state, 900 dollars; adjutant-general, 700 dollars; warden of the state prison, 700 dollars.

The members of the senate and house of representatives receive each two dollars a day; and the president of the senate and the speaker of the house, four dollars.

Supreme Judicial Court.—Chief justice, 1800 dollars; two associate justices, each 1800 dollars; attorney-general, 1000 dollars; reporter, 1000 dollars.

Court of Common Pleas, or District Court.—Chief justice, 1200 dollars; three associate judges, each 1200 dollars.

II. NEW HAMPSHIRE.

In 1641, the settlements in New Hampshire voluntarily put themselves under the government of the colony of Massachusetts, and were allowed to send representatives to the general court at Boston, till 1679, when a new government was formed, and New Hampshire was made a separate province.

In 1686, New Hampshire was placed, together with the rest of New England, under the same government. In 1689, the union with Massachusetts was revived, and continued till 1692. From 1699 to 1702, it was united with Massachusetts, and New York; in 1702, it was again united with Massachusetts, and so continued till 1741, when a final separation took place.

The constitution established in 1784; was in 1792, altered and amended, as now in force.

The Governor is elected annually by the people, on the second Tuesday in March. The qualifications necessary to render a candidate eligible to this office, are, a residence in the state during seven years immediately preceding the election, the age of thirty years, and property to the amount of 500*l.*, one-half consisting of a freehold within the state, held in the candidate's own right.

The Council consists of five members, elected by the freeholders and other inhabitants qualified to vote for senators. The qualifications requisite in a candidate for the office of councillor are: a residence of seven years within the state; a residence within the county at the time of the election; property within the state to the amount of 500*l.*; and thirty years of age.

The Legislative Power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, each of which bodies has a negative upon the acts of the other. This joint legislature is styled the General Court of New Hampshire. It assembles annually on the first Wednesday in June.

The Senate contains twelve members, elected annually by the people. To be eligible as a senator, the candidate must have been an inhabitant of the state for seven years immediately preceding the election, he must be at least thirty years of age, and must possess freehold property within the state, to the amount of 200*l.*

The House of Representatives contains 250 members, elected annually by the people. The qualifications required of a candidate for membership of the house, are a residence within the state for two years, immediately preceding the election, thirty years of age, and property to the amount of 100*l.*, within the district which he intends to represent, one-half of this property being a freehold. On ceasing to be thus qualified, he also ceases to be a representative.

The Judiciary Power.—All judicial officers, the attorney-general, solicitors, sheriffs, coroners, registers of probate, are nominated and appointed by the governor in council, and hold their offices during good behaviour. At the representation of both houses of the legislature, the governor, with the consent of council, may make removals at any time. No person can hold the office of judge in any court, judge of probate, or sheriff of any county, after he has attained the age of seventy years.

The Secretary and Treasurer are chosen by the joint ballot of the senators and representatives assembled in one room.

<i>Executive.</i> —Governor's salary	1000 dollars.
Five councillors	—
Secretary of state	800 do.
Treasurer	600 do.

The councillors, senators, and representatives, receive 2 dollars a day, for attendance during the session of the legislature, and 10 cents a mile for travel; of the president of the senate and the speaker of the house of representatives, also the councillors (when in service, except during the session of the legislature,) 2 dollars 50 cents a day.

Judiciary.—The superior court of judicature consists of a chief justice and two associate jus-

tices, who hold one term annually in each of the ten counties of the state, for the hearing and determining questions of law, &c. This court is also vested with chancery jurisdiction, for certain purposes prescribed by the statute.

The judges of the superior court of judicature are, *ex officio*, judges of the court of common pleas. This court, before whom all actions for recovery of debts and the enforcement of contracts, and all jury trials are brought, consists of one of the justices of the superior court, who sits as chief justice of the court of common pleas, and of two county judges, generally appointed from among the yeomanry, whose principal duty it is to attend to the ordinary business of the county, its roads, expenses, &c. Terms of this court are held semi-annually, in each of the counties.

<i>Superior Court.</i> —Chief justice's salary	1400 dollars.
Three associate justices	1200 do.
Attorney-general	1200 do.
<i>Circuit Court.</i> —Two judges	1200 do.
Attorney-general	1200 do.

There are two judges of common pleas in each of the ten county courts of the state, who are paid 3 dollars per day during attendance at the court, and 10 cents per mile for travelling. There are also courts of probate, the judges of which have salaries of from 100 to 334 dollars; and registrars, with salaries of from 125 to 462 dollars.

III. VERMONT.

Vermont was originally claimed both by New Hampshire and New York. Its political condition was, for a considerable time, unsettled; and the people preferring a separate government, formed a constitution in 1777, under which a government was organised in March, 1788. In 1791, Vermont was admitted into the union.

The Governor is elected annually by the people. No person is eligible to this office unless he is a citizen of the United States, and has resided in the state four years next preceding his election.

The Lieutenant-governor is also elected annually by the people, and must possess the same qualifications as the governor. He acts as governor in the event of that officer's absence or inability to serve. As lieutenant-governor, he is president of the senate.

The Supreme Executive Council consists of the governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve persons chosen by the people.

The Legislative Power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, which, together, are styled the General Assembly.

The Senate consists of thirty members, each county choosing at least one. Some counties are entitled to more, according to the amount of population.

The House of Representatives consists of 231 members, elected annually by the people. Every representative must have resided in the state two years, the latter in the town for which he is elected, and must be a citizen of the United States.

The Judicial Power.—Courts of justice are maintained in every county. There is a supreme court consisting of five judges, who are justices of the peace throughout the state. All the judges and justices are elected annually by the legislature. The supreme court sits once, and the county courts twice in each county. There is also a Court of Chancery, which holds its sessions every year in each county, each judge of the supreme court being chancellor of a circuit.

Secretary, Treasurer, &c.—The secretary of state is elected by the joint vote of the general assembly annually; the treasurer by the people, also annually.

Right of Suffrage.—Every man of the age of twenty-one years, a citizen of the United States, having resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and being of a quiet and peaceful behaviour, if he will take an oath or affirmation of allegiance, is entitled to all the privileges of a freeman.

A Council of Censors.—Once in seven years a council of thirteen censors is elected for the term of one year. It is their duty to inquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate during the last septenary; and whether the legislative and executive branches have performed their duty as guardians of the people, or have assumed or exercised other or greater powers than those conferred upon them by the constitution; also to look after various other matters connected with the administration of the state government.

The governor's salary is 750 dollars; lieutenant-governor, as president of the senate, 4 dollars a day; the compensation of the members of the general assembly is 1½ dollars per day during session.

Salary of the Judges of the Supreme Court.—Chief justice, 1375 dollars; 4 associate judges, 1375 dollars each; and reporter, 450 dollars.

IV. MASSACHUSETTS.

The territory of Massachusetts comprised, for many years after its first settlement, two separate colonies; viz., the Plymouth Colony and the Colony of Massachusetts Bay.

The two colonies continued separate, and elected their own governors annually, till 1685-6, when they were deprived of their charters. In 1692, they were united into one colony under a new charter; and the governors were afterwards appointed by the king.

By the constitution formed in 1780, and amended in 1821, the legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, styled The General Court of Massachusetts.

The House of Representatives consists of 336 members, who are elected annually in May, ten days at least before the last Wednesday of that month. Corporate towns having 150 rateable polls elect one representative, and another for every additional 225 rateable polls.

No person is eligible to the house who is not possessed of a freehold of the value of 100*l.* within the town he shall be chosen to represent, or rateable estate, to the value of 200*l.*, and shall cease to represent the said town immediately on his ceasing to be qualified as above.

The Senate consists of 40 members, chosen by districts, annually, on the first Monday in April.

No person is eligible to the senate, unless he possesses a freehold of 300*l.*, a personal estate to the value of 600*l.*, or of both to the amount of the same sum, and who has not been an inhabitant of the commonwealth five years immediately preceding his election.

The pay of each member of the council, of the senate, and of the house of representatives, is two dollars for each day's attendance, and two dollars for every ten miles they travel.

The Supreme Executive Magistrate is styled the Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, with the title of "His Excellency." He is elected annually by the people on the first Monday of April, together with a lieutenant-governor. The latter is styled "His Honour." The governor is assisted in the executive part of government by a council of nine members, chosen by the joint ballot of the senators and representatives, from the senators. In case the persons elected, or any of them, decline the appointment, they are elected from among the people at large. The councillors rank next to the lieutenant-governor.

The general court meets, at Boston, on the last Wednesday of May, and also in January.

The Right of Suffrage is granted to every male citizen twenty-one years of age and upwards (excepting paupers and persons under guardianship), who has resided within the commonwealth one year, and within the town or district in which he may claim a right to vote, six calendar months preceding any election, and who has paid a state or county tax assessed upon him within two years next preceding such election; and also every citizen who may be by law exempted from taxation, and who may be, in all other respects, qualified as above-mentioned.

The Judiciary is vested in a supreme court, a court of common pleas, and such other courts as the legislature may establish.

All judicial officers, the attorney-general, the solicitor-general, all sheriffs, coroners, and registrars of probate, are nominated and appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the council, and hold their offices during good behaviour. At the representation of both houses of the legislature, the governor, with the consent of the council, may at any time remove them.

Justices of the peace have original and exclusive jurisdiction in all civil cases not exceeding 20 dollars, excepting in matters of real estate. They have concurrent criminal jurisdiction in breaches of the peace, and in cases of larceny, where the goods stolen do not exceed the value of 5 dollars.

The court of common pleas has appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases tried before a justice of the peace; original and exclusive jurisdiction in civil common-law cases not exceeding 20 dollars; and final jurisdiction, where the damages do not exceed 100 dollars. Its criminal jurisdiction depends on particular statutes. In offences at common law, its jurisdiction includes every thing where the punishment does not extend to life, or banishment, except where the punishment is, by statute, to be administered by the supreme court. In case of mortgages and forfeitures annexed to contracts, this court has a concurrent chancery jurisdiction.

The supreme judicial court has appellate jurisdiction in all civil cases where the debt or damage exceeds 100 dollars, and in all criminal cases originally tried in the common pleas or the municipal court of Boston. It has concurrent jurisdiction in all criminal cases cognisable by the inferior courts, and original and exclusive jurisdiction in all capital cases. It has also original and exclusive jurisdiction in all cases of alimony and divorce; and chancery powers in cases of trusts, specific performance of contracts in writing, mortgages, settlement of partnership accounts, waste, nuisance, and forfeitures annexed to contracts. It is the supreme court of probate entertains appeals from the probate courts of the counties, and has a general superintending power over all inferior tribunals by writ of error, certiorari, quo warranto, &c.

The probate courts, of which there is one in each county, consisting of a single judge, have

original and exclusive jurisdiction in the probate of wills, settlement of estates, and guardianship of minors, idiots, lunatics, &c.

In Boston, a court, consisting of three justices, styled the police court for the city of Boston, and a justices' court for the county of Suffolk, have the same civil jurisdiction as justices of the peace in other counties, and the same criminal jurisdiction as justices of the peace, concurrently with the municipal court.

In Boston, a municipal court, consisting of one judge, which has also cognisance of all crimes, not capital, committed within the county of Suffolk, and appellate jurisdiction in all criminal cases tried before the police court.

Salaries for the year ending on the 1st Wednesday in January, 1844.—Governor, 2500 dollars; lieutenant-governor, 4 dollars a day; secretary of the commonwealth, 1600 dollars; treasurer and receiver-general, 1600 dollars; adjutant-general and keeper of military stores, 1500 dollars; secretary of state's office, 1000 dollars; treasurer's office, 1000 dollars; secretary of the board of education, 1500 dollars; president of the senate, 4 dollars per day; speaker of the house of representatives, 4 dollars per day; clerk of the senate, 8 dollars per day; clerk of the house of representatives, 8 dollars per day.

Supreme Judicial Court.—Chief-justice, 3000 dollars; 3 justices, each 2500 dollars; reporter, 300 dollars; 4 district attorneys, 700 dollars each; 1 attorney-general, 1500 dollars.

Court of Common Pleas.—Chief-justice, 1800 dollars; 4 associate-justices, 1700 dollars each.

Police Court of Boston.—Four justices, 1500 dollars each.

PROBATE COURTS.

Counties.	Judge's Salary.	Registrar's do.	Counties.	Judge's Salary.	Registrar's do.
Barnstable	dollars 300.....	400	Hampshire	240.....	400
Berkshire	375.....	500	Middlesex.....	700.....	1200
Bristol	400.....	600	Nantucket	150.....	250
Dukes	100.....	100	Norfolk.....	400.....	600
Essex	600.....	1200	Plymouth.....	350.....	600
Franklin	240.....	400	Suffolk	800.....	1500
Hampden	240.....	400	Worcester.....	600.....	1200

V. RHODE ISLAND.

The government of this state (first settled in 1636), is founded on the provisions of the charter granted to the colony by Charles II., in 1663. It is the only state of the union without a written constitution.

Any duly qualified elector in this state, not holding office under the government of the United States, is eligible to any civil office therein.

A governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, an attorney-general, and a general treasurer, are elected annually by the people on the first Wednesday in April.

The chief executive power of the state is vested in the governor.

The lieutenant-governor acts as governor in case of a vacancy in the office, or the inability of this officer to serve, &c.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, collectively styled the general assembly; and, when acting conjointly, the grand committee. The general assembly holds two sessions annually, one at Newport on the last Monday of October,—the other biennially at South Kingstown, and, in the intermediate years, at Bristol and East Greenwich alternately. An adjournment of the October session is held annually at Providence.

The senate consists of the lieutenant-governor, and one senator from each town or city in the state. The governor, or, in his absence, the lieutenant-governor presides, and votes in cases of equal division. The secretary of state is also secretary of the senate, and presides in the absence of the governor and lieutenant-governor, until an election of a presiding officer is made by the senate.

The house of representatives is limited to seventy-two members. Each town or city is entitled to at least one member, provided that no town or city shall elect more than one-sixth of the entire number. The present ratio of representation is that of one member to every 1530 inhabitants; and the election being general in each town or city, each fraction exceeding a moiety is entitled to one representative. The house at present consists of sixty-nine members.

The judicial power consists of one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the general assembly may ordain. The judges of the supreme court are elected by the general assembly in grand committee, and may be dismissed by a majority of all the members elect of each house separately.

Right of Suffrage.—The requisites for the general franchise are, male citizenship of the United States; the age of twenty-one years; residence and home in the state for one year and in

the town or city where the vote is offered for six months next preceding the election ; and real estate in the said town or city of the value of 134 dollars, or renting for seven dollars above all incumbrances whatsoever, whether held in fee-simple, fee-tail for life, or in reversion or remainder, the conveyance of which, if by deed, has been recorded at least ninety days ; provided the said estate entitles no other person to vote. If the voter, otherwise qualified, own such an estate in any town or city within the state other than that in which he resides, he is required to produce a certificate to that effect from the clerk of the town or city in which his estate lies, dated within ten days of the time of voting, and showing that the deed, if there be any, has been recorded ninety days.

The right of voting, under the following restrictions, is extended to every male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years of age, resident for two years in the state, and for six months in the town or city where his vote is offered, whose name has been legally enrolled in the said town or city during the calendar year next preceding that of the election, and who produces legal proof that he has paid within the said year a tax of one dollar assessed within any town or city in the state, or that he has been enrolled and has actually performed duty in any military company of the state.

Restrictions.—No person can vote in the election of the town council of the city of Providence, or upon any proposition for the expenditure of money in any town or city, unless he has paid, within the year next preceding, a tax upon his property therein, valued at least at 134 dollars.

Legal residence is not obtainable by dwelling in any garrison, barrack, or military or naval station within the state.

Paupers, lunatics, persons *non compos mentis*, persons under guardianship, and Narraganset Indians, are disfranchised.

Salaries.—Governor, 400 dollars ; lieutenant-governor, 200 dollars ; secretary of state, fees and 750 dollars ; treasurer, fees and 650 dollars ; attorney-general, fees.

Supreme Court.—Chief justice, 650 dollars ; 3 associates, 550 dollars each.

The supreme court also receive entries on petitions for the insolvent act. The justices of this court also preside alternately as chief of the common pleas in the several counties, for which they receive a proportion of the entries.

VI. CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut originally comprised two colonies, the Colony of Connecticut, and the Colony of New Haven.

In 1662, a charter was granted by Charles II., with ample privileges, uniting the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven under one government. The colony of New Haven refused for some time to accept the charter, and the union did not take place till 1665. The charter was suspended in 1687, but restored again after the revolution of 1688 in England, and formed the basis of the government till 1818.

The present constitution was framed in 1818.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives.

The members of the house of representatives are chosen by the different towns in the state : the more ancient towns, the majority of the whole number, send each two representatives ; the rest one each. The present number is 215.

The senate must consist of not less than eighteen, nor more than twenty-four members, who are chosen by districts. The present number is twenty-one.

The executive power is vested in a governor. A lieutenant-governor is also chosen, who is president of the senate, and on whom the duties of the governor devolve in case of his death, resignation, or absence.

The representatives, senators, governor, and lieutenant-governor are elected annually by the people on the first Monday in April.

The general assembly has one stated session every year, on the first Wednesday in May, alternately Hartford, 1831, and at New Haven, 1832.

“Every white male citizen of the United States, who shall have gained a settlement in this state, attained the age of 21 years, and resided in the town in which he may offer himself to be admitted to the privilege of an elector, at least six months preceding, and have a freehold estate of the yearly value of seven dollars in this state ; or, having been enrolled in the militia, shall have performed military duty therein for the term of one year next preceding the time he shall offer himself for admission, or, being liable thereto, shall have been, by authority of law, excused therefrom ; or shall have paid a state tax within the year next preceding the time he shall present himself for such admission, and shall sustain a good moral character, shall, on his taking such an oath as may be prescribed by law, be an elector.”

The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of errors, a superior court, and such inferior

courts as the general assembly may, from time to time, establish. The judges are appointed by the general assembly; and those of the supreme and superior courts hold their offices during good behaviour; but not beyond the age of 70 years.

No person is compelled to join, or support, or to be classed with, or associated to any congregation, church, or religious association. But every person may be compelled to pay his proportion of the expenses of the society to which he may belong: he may, however, separate himself from the society by leaving a written notice of his wish with the clerk of such society.

Government Salaries.—Governor, 1100 dollars; lieutenant-governor, 300 dollars; treasurer, 1000 dollars; secretary, (exclusive of fees) 84 dollars; comptroller, 1000 dollars; commissioner of the school fund, 1250 dollars.

The pay of the senators is 2 dollars a day each, during the session, and of the representatives 1 dollar 50 cents a day, and both receive 9 cents a mile for travel. The speaker of the house of representatives receives 2 dollars 50 cents a day.

Judiciary.—*Supreme Court of Errors.*—Chief-justice, 1100 dollars; 3 associate justices, 1050 dollars each; reporter, 350 dollars.

The supreme court of errors is composed of the five judges, and is held in each of the eight counties.

The superior court is a court held in each of the counties, by one of the judges of the supreme court.

There is also a county court in each county, composed of a chief judge and two associate judges, who are appointed annually by the legislature. The chief judges of these courts receive 3 dollars 50 cents a day, and the associate judges 3 dollars a day, during the session of the court, and 9 cents a mile for travel.

VII. NEW YORK.

In 1664, Charles II. of England granted his brother, the Duke of York, a patent for the country forming the present states of New York and New Jersey; and, during the same year, Colonel Nicolls, with a considerable force, in the service of the duke, made a conquest of the country. The name of New Netherlands was afterwards changed to New York. In 1673, the colony was recaptured by the Dutch, and retained a few months. With the exception of this period, it was in the possession of the English from 1664 till the American revolution, in 1775.

The colonial government was suspended in May, 1775, from which time to April, 1777, New York was governed by a provincial congress. A constitution having, at length, been formed and adopted, the government, under this constitution, went into operation April 20, 1777.

The constitution of the state of New York was formed in 1821.

The executive power is vested in a governor, elected by the people every two years. At the same time, a lieutenant-governor is also chosen, who is president of the senate; on whom, in case of the impeachment, resignation, death, or absence of the governor from office, the powers and duties of governor devolve.

The legislative power is vested in a senate of 32 members, chosen for five years, and an assembly of 128 members, elected annually.

For the election of the senators, the state is divided into eight districts, each being entitled to choose four senators, one of whom is elected every year. The members of the assembly are chosen by counties, and apportioned according to population.

The election of governor, lieutenant-governor, senators, and members of the assembly, is held at such time in the month of October or November, as the legislature may by law provide.

The legislature meets annually (at Albany), on the first Tuesday in January, unless a different day is appointed by law.

The constitution grants the right of suffrage, in the election of public officers, to every white male citizen, of the age of 21 years, who has been an inhabitant of the state one year next preceding any election, and, for the preceding six months, a resident in the county where he may offer his vote; but no man of colour is entitled to vote unless he is possessed of a freehold estate of the value of 250 dollars, without any incumbrance.

The chancellor and judges are appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate. The chancellor and justices of the supreme and circuit courts hold their offices during their good behaviour, or until they attain the age of sixty years. The judges of the county courts, or courts of common pleas, are appointed for a term of five years.

The court of errors consists of the president of the senate, the senators, chancellor, or any judge of the supreme court.

EXECUTIVE.

	Salaries. dollars.		Salaries. dollars.
Governor.....	4000	Deputy comptroller	1500
Comptroller	2500	Deputy secretary and clerk of com. of land office	1500
Treasurer	1500	Four acting canal commissioners	2000
Secretary of state and superintendent of com. schools	1500	Commissary-general	700
Surveyor-general	1000	Adjutant-general	1000
Attorney-general	1000		

The members of the senate and assembly have 3 dollars per day during the session.

JUDICIARY.

	Salaries. dollars.		Salaries. dollars.
COURT OF CHANCERY.		Assistant registrar	2500
Chancellor	3000	SUPREME COURT.	
Registrar	2500	Chief justice	3000
Reporter	500	Two associate justices, each	3000
VICE-CHANCELLOR'S COURT.		Reporter	500
Vice-chancellor—1st circuit	2000		
Vice-chancellor—2d circuit	1600		

There are eight circuit courts, one in each senate district, with eight judges, each with a salary of 1250 dollars; and a superior court of the city of New York, with three judges, with salaries of 2500 dollars each.

VIII. NEW JERSEY.

The territory comprised in this state was included in the patent granted by Charles II. to his brother the Duke of York, in 1664; and in the same year conveyed to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret; when it received the name of New Jersey. It then contained a few families.

In 1676, New Jersey was divided into two provinces, East Jersey and West Jersey.

In 1682, East Jersey was transferred to William Penn and eleven associates; and Robert Barclay, the celebrated author of the "Apology for the Principles of the Quakers," was appointed governor.

In 1702, East and West Jersey were again united into one province, by the name of New Jersey, under the governor of New York; and this connexion with New York continued till 1738, when a separate government was instituted, which lasted till the American revolution.

The constitution of New Jersey was formed in 1776; and no revision of it has since taken place, except that the legislature has undertaken to explain its provisions in particular parts. The government is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly.

The members of the legislative council and of the general assembly are elected annually, on the second Tuesday in October.

The number of members of the legislative council is eighteen. The general assembly has consisted, for a number of years past, of forty-three members; but it will hereafter consist of fifty.

The legislature meets annually (at Trenton), on the fourth Tuesday in October.

The governor is chosen annually by a joint vote of the council and assembly, at their first joint meeting after each annual election. The governor is president of the council and chancellor of the state; and the council also elect from their own body, at their first annual meeting, a vice-president, who acts in the place of the governor in his absence. The governor and council form a court of appeal in the last resort in all causes of law; and they possess the power of granting pardon to criminals after condemnation.

The constitution grants the right of suffrage to "all persons of full age who are worth fifty pounds proclamation money, clear estate in the same, and have resided within the county in which they claim to vote, for twelve months immediately preceding the election." (The legislature has declared by law, that every white male inhabitant, over the age of twenty-one years, who has paid a tax, shall be considered worth fifty pounds, and entitled to vote. By another legislative act, females and negroes are prohibited from voting.)

The judges are appointed by the legislature, those of the supreme court for a term of seven years, and those of the inferior courts for five years; both are capable of being reappointed.

Salaries:—

Governor (exclusive of fees of office as chancellor of the state *ex officio* 2000 dollars.

	dollars.
Vice-president of the legislative council (pay, during attendance, 3 dollars 50 cents a day).	
Secretary of state, and auditor (exclusive of perquisites)	50
Treasurer, elected annually	1000
Attorney-general, fees and	80
Clerk in Chancery	perquisites.

The members of the legislative council and the general assembly receive 3 dollars for each day's attendance, and 3 dollars for every twenty miles' travel; and the president 3½ dollars per day.

Judicial Power.—The judges of the supreme court hold their offices seven years; the judges of the inferior court of common pleas and quarter-sessions, the attorney-general and secretary, five years; the state treasurer, one year; but all are capable of being reappointed. These officers are appointed by the council and assembly.

The supreme court holds four terms each year at Trenton; on the last Tuesday in February, second in May, first in September, and second in November; and the judges of this court hold circuit courts and courts of oyer and terminer four times a year in each county, except the counties of Atlantic and Cape May, in which two terms only are held. Inferior courts of common pleas are held four times in a year in each county, by judges appointed by the legislature, who receive no salary, and the number of whom is not limited by any law.

The court of appeals and pardons is composed of the governor, who is, *ex officio*, president judge, and eighteen associate judges; that is, it consists of the governor and the legislative council, which is composed of one member for each county. This court holds two terms annually, at Trenton.

Court of Chancery.—The governor of the state is chancellor; and this court holds four terms annually, at Trenton, on the third Tuesday in January, first Tuesday in April, second Tuesday in July, and second Tuesday in October.

The salaries in the supreme court are—chief justice, 1500 dollars; four associate justices, each 1400 dollars; clerk, fees; reporter, 200 dollars.

IX. PENNSYLVANIA.

From the beginning of the eighteenth century till the commencement of the American revolution, the government was generally administered by deputies appointed by the proprietaries, who mostly resided in England.

The first constitution of Pennsylvania was adopted in 1776; the present in 1790.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives.

The representatives are elected annually on the second Tuesday in October, by the citizens of Philadelphia and of the several counties, apportioned according to the number of taxable inhabitants. The number cannot be less than 60, nor more than 100.

The senators are chosen for three years, one-third being elected annually, at the time of the election of the representatives. Their number cannot be greater than one-third, nor less than one-fourth of the number of the representatives.

The executive power is vested in a governor elected by the people, who holds office during three years, from the third Tuesday in December next following his election. He may, by re-elections, hold office nine years, in any term of twelve years.

The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, in courts of oyer and terminer and gaol-delivery, in courts of common pleas, an orphans' court, a registrar's court, a court of quarter-sessions of the peace for each county, and in such other courts as the legislature may, from time to time, establish. The judges of the supreme court and the several courts of common pleas are appointed by the governor, by and with the advice of the senate. The judges of the supreme court hold their office for fifteen years; those of the common pleas for ten years; the associate judges of the common pleas for five years.

The right of suffrage is possessed by every freeman of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the state two years next preceding an election, and within that time paid a state or county tax, assessed at least six months before the election.

Salaries.—Governor, 4000 dollars; secretary of the commonwealth, 1700 dollars; state treasurer, 1400 dollars; auditor-general, 1400 dollars; surveyor-general, 1200 dollars; secretary of the land office, 1200 dollars; attorney-general (exclusive of fees), 300 dollars.

The senators and representatives receive 3 dollars for each day's attendance, and 15 cents a mile for travel; the speaker of each house, 4 dollars a day; canal commissioners, 3 dollars per day.

Judiciary.—Chief justice's salary, 2666 dollars 67 cents; four associate justices, each 2000 dollars; prothonotary, fees.

The judges of the supreme court hold circuit courts throughout the state, for which they

receive, in addition to their salaries, 4 dollars a day while on the circuits ; and by a law passed in 1843, the chief justice's salary is to be reduced to 1800 dollars, and the associate justices, to 1600, with an addition of 3 dollars a day while on the circuits.

The jurisdiction of the four district courts for Philadelphia and for the counties of Lancaster, Alleghany, Erie, &c., is the same as that of the court of common pleas in other counties.

District Court for the City and County of Philadelphia.—President judge, salary, 2000 dollars ; two associate judges, each 2000 dollars ; prothonotary.

District Court for the Counties of Lancaster and York.—President judge, salary, 1600 dollars ; associate judge, 1000 dollars.

The state is divided also into twenty districts, for the sessions of the courts of common pleas. The president judge of the district of Philadelphia has a salary of 2000 dollars, and two associate judges, 400 dollars each. The president judges in the other districts have salaries of 2000 dollars, and their associates 120 dollars.

The state is also divided into four districts, for the sessions of the supreme court, which, as a court in banco, holds six regular terms, for argument, &c., annually ; viz., for the eastern district, at Philadelphia, on the second Monday in March, and on the second Monday in December ; for the Lancaster district, at Lancaster, on the second Monday in May ; for the middle district, at Sunbury, on the Wednesday following the second week of the term of the Lancaster district ; for the western district, at Pittsburg, on the first Monday in September.

It is only in the city and county of Philadelphia that the supreme court has original jurisdiction, and there only when the sum in controversy exceeds 500 dollars ; all issues of fact are tried by jury before a single judge, at *nisi prius*.

For the other counties of this state circuit courts are held, which are unlike courts of *nisi prius*, as judgment may be rendered at them, subject to revision by appeal in the supreme court in bank, and causes are only brought into them by removal from the courts of common pleas. They are held by one judge in each county, at least once a year.

X. DELAWARE.

In 1682, when this state as a county was granted to William Penn, under the same executive and legislative government with Pennsylvania, it was then, as it is now, divided into three counties, Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex, generally styled, till the American revolution, "The Three Lower Counties upon the Delaware."

In 1701, the representatives of Delaware withdrew from those of Pennsylvania ; the first separate legislative assembly met at Newcastle, in 1704 ; and it ever afterwards continued distinct from that of Pennsylvania ; though the same governor presided over both provinces till the 4th of July, 1776.

The first constitution of Delaware, which was formed in 1776, placed the executive power in a president, and a privy council of four members. In 1792, a new constitution, the one now in operation, was adopted, by which the executive power is vested in a governor.

The Governor is elected by the people for four years, and cannot be elected a second term. Requisites for eligibility—the age of thirty years, a citizenship and residence in the United States for twelve years next before his election, the last six within the state.

The Legislative Power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives.

The Senate consists of nine members (three from each county), elected by the people for four years. Requisites for membership of the senate—the age of twenty-seven years, an estate in the county for which the member is chosen of the value of a thousand pounds, a residence in the county one year, and in the state three years next preceding the election.

The House of Representatives consists of twenty-one members (seven from each county), elected by the people biennially. Requisites for membership—the age of twenty-four years, residence in the state three years, and in the county for which the member is elected one year next preceding election.

The Judiciary Power.—All judges are appointed by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

Right of Suffrage.—Every free white male citizen of the age of twenty-two years and upwards, having resided in the state one year next previous to election, the last month thereof in the county where he offers his vote, and having paid a tax within two years, enjoys the right of an elector. Every free white male citizen of the age of twenty-one years, and under the age of twenty-two years, having resided as aforesaid, is entitled to vote without the payment of any tax. No person in the military, naval, or marine service of the United States is considered a citizen of the state in consequence of being quartered or stationed within the state ; and no idiot, insane person, pauper, or person convicted of a crime deemed by law felony, enjoys the rights of an elector. The legislature has power to impose the forfeiture of the right of suffrage as a punishment for crime.

Election, &c.—All elections for governor, senators, representatives, sheriffs, and coroners, are held on the second Tuesday of November. The general assembly meet on the first Tuesday of January, biennially, at Dovor.

Salaries.—Governor, 1333½ dollars; secretary of state, fees and 400 dollars; state treasurer, 500 dollars; auditor, 500 dollars; pay of the members of the legislature, 3 dollars a day; chancellor, 1100 dollars.

Superior Court.—Chief justice, 1200 dollars; associate justice, 1200 dollars; two associate justices, each 1000 dollars; attorney-general, fees and 300 dollars.

The judicial power is vested in a court of chancery, a supreme court, court of common pleas, register's court, &c.

XI. MARYLAND.

In 1632, Maryland was granted by Charles I., of England, to Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore; but before the patent was completed, he died, and the patent, dated June 20th, 1632, was given to his eldest son, Cecilius, who succeeded to his titles, and who, for upwards of forty years, directed, as proprietor, the affairs of the colony.

Leonard Calvert, brother to Cecilius, Lord Baltimore, was appointed the first governor; and he, together with about 200 persons, commenced the settlement of the town of St. Mary's, in 1634.

The constitution of this state was first formed in 1776; since which time many amendments have been made.

The Legislative Power consists of two branches, the senate and house of delegates.

The Senate consists of twenty-one members, elected by the people for six years; one-third of the number being elected every two years. Requisites for membership of the senate—the age of twenty-five years, and residence in the city or county for which the member may be chosen, three years next preceding the election.

The House of Delegates consists of seventy-eight members, elected by the people. Requisites for membership of the house—the age of twenty-one years, and residence in the county for which the member may be chosen one year next preceding the election.

The Judiciary Power.—All judges are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

Right of Suffrage.—Every white male citizen above the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and in the county or city where he offers his vote, six months preceding the election, has the right of suffrage. The annual election takes place on the first Wednesday of October. The legislature meets at Annapolis on the last Monday of December, annually.

Salaries.—Governor, 4200 dollars; secretary of state, 2000 dollars; surveyor-general, 800 dollars; attorney-general, fees; adjutant-general, 500 dollars.

The Executive Power is vested in a governor, elected by the people once in three years. The governor is assisted by a council of five members, chosen annually by a joint ballot of the senate and house of delegates.

Judiciary.—Salaries in court of chancery—chancellor, 3600 dollars; in court of appeals—chief judge, 2500; four associate judges, each 2200; one associate judge, 3000.

County Courts.—The state is divided into six judicial districts, for each of which there are three judges. Each court is constituted of one of the judges of the court of appeals, and two associates. The salary of these county associate judges is 1400 dollars, except in the Baltimore district, where the associate judges are paid 2200 dollars each.

Baltimore City Court.—Chief justice's salary, 2400 dollars; two associate judges, each 1500 dollars.

XII. VIRGINIA.

The government of the colony was first administered by a council of seven persons, with a president chosen from among their number; but afterwards it was administered by a governor, appointed, except during the commonwealth in England, by the crown.

The constitution of this state was formed in 1776. In 1829, a convention met at Richmond, "to consider, discuss, and propose a new constitution, or alterations and amendments to the existing constitution;" and on the 14th of January, 1830, the convention adopted an amended constitution, by a vote of 55 to 40.

The amended constitution, on being submitted to the legal voters of the state, was ratified by a majority of 10,492 votes.

By this constitution, the legislative power is vested in a senate and a house of delegates. No person holding a lucrative office, minister or priest, is eligible to sit in the house.

The house of delegates consists of 134 members, chosen annually; 31 from the 26 counties

west of the Alleghany Mountains; 25 from the 14 counties between the Alleghany Mountains and Blue Ridge; 42 from the 29 counties east of the Blue Ridge, and above tide-water; and 36 from the counties, cities, towns, and boroughs lying upon tide-water.

The senate consists of 32 members, 13 from the counties west of the Blue Ridge, and 19 from the counties, cities, towns, and boroughs east thereof. The senators are elected for four years; and the seats of one-fourth of them are vacated every year. In all elections to any office or place of trust, honour, or profit, the votes are given openly, or *viva voce*, and not by ballot.

The executive power is vested in a governor, elected by the joint vote of the two houses of the general assembly. He holds his office three years, commencing on the 1st of January next succeeding his election, or on such other day as may be, from time to time, prescribed by law; and he is ineligible for the three years next after the expiration of his term of office.

There is a council of state, consisting of three members elected for three years, by the joint vote of the two houses; the seat of one being vacated annually. The senior counsellor is lieutenant-governor.

The judges of the supreme court of appeals and of the superior courts, are elected by a joint vote of both houses of the general assembly, and hold their offices during good behaviour; or until removed by a concurrent vote of both houses. The attorney-general is appointed in the same manner.

The right of suffrage is extended to every white male citizen of the commonwealth, resident therein, aged 21 years and upwards, who is qualified to exercise the right of suffrage according to the former constitution and laws; or who owns a freehold of the value of 25 dollars; or who has a joint interest to the amount of 25 dollars in a freehold; or who has a life estate in, or reversionary title to, land of the value of 50 dollars, having been so possessed for six months; or who shall own, and be in the actual occupation of, a leasehold estate, having the title recorded two months before he shall offer to vote, of a term originally not less than five years, and of the annual value or rent of 200 dollars; or who for twelve months before offering to vote, has been a house-keeper and head of a family, and shall have been assessed with a part of the revenue of the commonwealth, within the preceding year, and actually paid the same.

Salaries.—Governor, 3333 dollars 50 cents; lieutenant-governor, 1000 dollars; 2 councillors of state, 1000 dollars each; treasurer, 2000 dollars; auditor, 2000 dollars; 2d auditor and sup. library fund, 2000 dollars; register of land office, 1500 dollars; attorney-general, fees and 1000 dollars; secretary of the commonwealth and librarian, 1720 dollars; adjutant-general, 1000 dollars; clerk of the council, 1000 dollars; superintendent of penitentiary, 2000 dollars; speaker of the senate, 6 dollars per day; speaker of the house of delegates, 8 dollars per day.

Court of Appeals.—President, 2750 dollars; 4 judges, 2500 dollars each; clerk of eastern district, 1000 dollars; ditto western, 1000 dollars.

Twenty judges of the central circuit courts. Salary of the first 20 judges, 1500 each, and 4 dollars for every 20 miles they may be compelled to travel to and from their respective courts. Metropolitan circuit, 2000 dollars; judge of the court of chancery for the 21st circuit, 2000 dollars.

The court of appeals holds two sessions annually; one at Louisburg, Greenbriar county, for the counties lying west of the Blue Ridge, commencing on the 2d Monday in July, and continuing 90 days, unless the business shall be sooner despatched; the other at Richmond, for the counties lying east of the Blue Ridge, commencing at such times as the court may from time to time appoint, and continuing 160 days, unless the business shall be sooner despatched. Suits commenced during the year ending August 1842, 121; suits pending 580; suits decided, 106; Number of days in session, 179.

General Court.—The state is divided into ten judicial districts, and each district into two circuits, except the 4th, which comprises three. The third circuit of the 4th district is the 21st district of the state, containing but a single court, called the "Circuit Superior Court of Law and Chancery for the county of Henrico and city of Richmond. In this court there are two judges, one on the law side, the other on the chancery side. On the death, resignation, or removal of either of the two judges now attached to this court, his duties are to devolve on the other, without any increase of salary.

A circuit superior court of law and chancery is held twice every year in each county and corporation.

The judges who hold the circuit courts, are also required to hold, every year, two terms of the general court in the capital at Richmond. It is the duty of 15 of the judges to attend this court, 11 being necessary to form a quorum. One term begins on the last Monday in June; the other on the 15th of December. The judges are required to arrange themselves into four classes, of five judges each, one of whom is exempt, in rotation, from attending the court.

The general court has appellate jurisdiction in the last resort in criminal cases; also original jurisdiction of probates and administrations, and some claims of the commonwealth. Its judges, or a portion of them, sit as a special court of appeals, in cases in which the judges of the court of appeals proper are disqualified by interest or otherwise.

County Courts.—A county court sits in each county every month, held by four or more justices of the peace. These courts, formed of plain farmers or country gentlemen, are invested with a jurisdiction wider than that of any other court in the state, covering almost the whole field of cognisance, civil, criminal, legal, and equitable. Any one justice can hold a court with jurisdiction over all causes in which the value does not exceed 20 dollars. At the monthly and quarterly sessions, which are held by four or more justices, deeds and wills may be proved and chancery matters and suits at common law be heard and determined, with a right of appeal to a superior court, when the value at issue amounts to 100 dollars and upwards. These courts, exclusively, try slaves for all offences; and they examine free persons charged with felony, previously to their trial in the circuit court. Free negroes and Indians are on the same footing with slaves.

The governor is elected by the qualified voters of the house of commons once in two years. The same individual cannot be elected more than four, in any term of six years. Requisites for eligibility—the age of thirty years, a freehold estate of the value of 1000*l.*, and five years' residence in the state.

The council of state consists of seven persons, elected by the general assembly at their first meeting, who hold the office two years.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of commons, which, collectively, are denominated the general assembly.

The senate is composed of fifty members, elected by the people biennially. Requisites for membership of senate—residence and possession, for one year previous to the election, of three hundred acres of land in the county for which the member may be chosen.

The house of commons is composed of 120 members, elected biennially by the people. Requisites for membership—residence, and possession, for a year previous to election, of land to the amount of 100 acres in the county for which the member may be chosen.

The Judiciary Power.—The general assembly, by joint ballot, appoint judges of the supreme courts of law and equity, judges of admiralty, and the attorney-general. The judges hold their offices during good behaviour; the attorney-general for four years.

Right of Suffrage.—All freemen of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who have resided in any one county within the state twelve months immediately preceding the election, and have paid taxes, are entitled to vote for members of the house of commons for the county in which they reside; and every freeman qualified as above, and possessing within the senatorial district of which he is an inhabitant, fifty acres of land—excepting free negroes, free mulattoes, or free persons of mixed blood descended from negro ancestors to the fourth generation—is entitled to vote for a member of the senate.

Salaries.—Governor, a furnished house and 2000 dollars; secretary of state, fees and 800 dollars; treasurer, 1500 dollars; comptroller, 1000 dollars; clerk of treasury, 500 dollars; councilors 3 dollars per day each, and 3 dollars for every 30 miles when travelling.

Supreme Court.—Chief-justice, 2500 dollars; 2 associate justices, 2500 each; reporter, 300 dollars with the copyright of the reports.

The supreme court holds two sessions in each year, in the city of Raleigh; to wit, on the second Monday in June and the last Monday in December; and continues to sit at each term until all the business on the docket is determined, or continued upon good cause shown. It has power to hear and determine all questions at law, brought before it by appeal from a superior court of law, and to hear and determine all cases in equity, brought before it by appeal from a court of equity, or removed there by the parties thereto. It has original and exclusive jurisdiction in repealing letters patent, and also has power to issue writs of *certiorari*, *scire facias*, *habeas corpus*, *mandamus*, and all other writs which may be proper and necessary for the exercise of its jurisdiction, and agreeable to the principles and usages of law.

The judges of the supreme and the superior courts are elected by joint ballot of both houses of the general assembly, hold their offices during good behaviour, and, under a provision in the amendments to the constitution of the state, their salaries cannot be diminished during their continuance in office.

The seven judges of the superior or circuit courts have a salary of 1950 dollars each; six solicitors 20 dollars each for each court which they attend, besides fees for conviction. The attorney-general receives, in addition, 100 dollars for each term of the supreme court which he attends.

The superior courts of law and the courts of equity are holden in each and every county of the state, twice in each year, by the judges thereof. For this purpose, the state is divided into seven circuits, each of which comprises about ten counties, and the judges ride these circuits alternately, according to an arrangement agreed upon among themselves, the only restriction imposed upon them in making the arrangements being, that no judge shall ride the same circuit twice in succession. As judges of the superior courts of law, they have jurisdiction of all pleas, real, personal, and mixed; of all suits and demands relative to legacies, filial portions, and estates of intestates; and also of all pleas of the state and criminal matters, of what nature, degree, or denomination soever, whether brought before them by original or mesne process, or by *certiorari*, writs of error,

appeal from any inferior court, or by any other way or means whatsoever. As judges of the courts of equity, they have all the jurisdiction and powers appertaining to courts of chancery.

XIII. SOUTH CAROLINA.

In 1663, the territory which now comprises the states of North and South Carolina, and the greater part of Georgia, was granted by Charles II. to the Earl of Clarendon, and seven others, who were constituted proprietors. The colony was named Carolina, and the government was vested in the hands of the proprietors. The proprietary government lasted about fifty years, when it was abolished by the people; and the government was afterwards directed by governors appointed by the king. The first constitution of this state was formed in 1775; the present constitution was adopted in 1790.

The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives.

The senate consists of 45 members, who are elected by districts for four years, and half being chosen biennially.

The house of representatives consists of 124 members, who are appointed among the several districts, according to the number of white inhabitants and taxation; and are elected for two years. The representatives and one-half of the senators are chosen every second year, on the second Monday in October, and the day following.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected for two years, by a joint vote of the senate and house of representatives, at every first meeting of the house of representatives. A governor, after having performed the duties of the office for two years, cannot be re-elected till after the expiration of four years.

At the time of the election of governor, a lieutenant-governor is chosen in the same manner and for the same period.

The general assembly meets annually (at Columbia), on the fourth Monday in November.

The chancellor and judges are appointed by the joint ballot of the senate and house of representatives, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

The constitution grants the right of suffrage to every free white male citizen, of the age of 21 years, having resided in the state two years previous to the day of election, and having been possessed of a freehold of 50 acres of land, or a town lot, at least six months before such election, or (not having such freehold or town lot) having been a resident in the election district in which he offers his vote, six months before the said election, and having paid a tax the preceding year of 3s. sterling towards the support of the government. Governor's salary, 3900 dollars; secretary, fees only.

The 45 state senators and 124 representatives receive each 4 dollars per day.

Chancellors in equity, first and second, at 3500 dollars; three at 3000 dollars each.

Common Pleas and General Sessions.—Judges, one at 3500 dollars; five at 3000 dollars; reporter, 1500 dollars.

"Appeal courts of law and of equity shall hereafter be heard and determined in Columbia, on the first Monday in May, and on the fourth Monday in November, in every year.

"The courts for the correction of errors, consisting of all the chancellors, and judges of the courts of law, shall be held at such time during the sittings of the courts of appeal, as the chancellors and judges may appoint."—*Acts of the General Assembly, passed in December, 1842.*

XIV. GEORGIA.

The first constitution of Georgia was formed in 1777; a second, in 1785; and a third, the one now in operation, in 1798.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who was formerly elected by the general assembly; but he is now (and ever since 1824) elected by the people, on the first Monday in October; and he holds the office for two years. No person is eligible to this office, unless he has been a citizen of the United States twelve years, an inhabitant of the state six years, has attained the age of thirty years, and is in possession of 500 acres of land within the state, and other property to the amount of 4000 dollars, nor unless his estate is worth this sum above the amount of his debts.

The senate consists of ninety-three members, (one from each county), which are elected annually. Every senator must have attained the age of twenty-five years, must have been a citizen of the United States nine years, an inhabitant of the state three years, and of the county for which he is returned one year, and must be possessed of a freehold estate of 500 dollars, or taxable property to the amount of 1000 dollars within the county for which he is elected, above the amount of his debts.

The house of representatives consists of 207 members, which are elected annually. Every representative must have attained the age of twenty-one years, must have been a citizen of the United States seven years, of the state three years, and of the county for which he is returned, one

year preceding his election, and must be possessed of a freehold estate of the value of 250 dollars, or taxable property to the amount of 500 dollars within the county for which he is elected, above the amount of his debts.

The general assembly meets (at Milledgeville), on the first Monday in November ; unless convened at another time by the governor.

The constitution grants the right of suffrage to all "citizens and inhabitants, who have attained the age of twenty-one years, and have paid all the taxes which may have been required of them, and which they may have had an opportunity of paying, agreeable to law, for the year preceding the election, and shall have resided six months within the county."

The judicial power is vested in a superior court, and in such inferior jurisdictions as the legislature may, from time to time, ordain and establish ; and the superior and inferior courts sit twice in each county every year. The judges of the superior court are elected by the legislature for three years ; the justices of the inferior courts, and justices of the peace, are elected annually by the people ; and the clerks of the superior and inferior courts biennially. The secretary of the state, treasurer, and surveyor-general, are elected at the same time and manner as the governor.

Salaries.—Governor's salary, 3000 dollars ; secretary of state, comptroller, treasurer, surveyor-general, each 1600 dollars.

The officers of the executive government are required by law to reside, during their term of office, at Milledgeville.

Secretary of the senate, and clerk of house of representatives, each 500 dollars per annum ; president of the senate, and speaker of the house of representatives, each 5 dollars a day.

The pay of the members of the legislature, is 4 dollars a day.

The state is divided into eleven circuits, with a judge for each, at a salary of 1800 dollars ; attorney-general, 250 dollars and perquisites ; judge of court of oyer and terminer, Savannah, and judge of court of oyer and terminer, Augusta, each 1000 dollars.

An inferior court is held in each county, each composed of five justices, elected by the people every four years. These courts possess the powers of courts of probate. The justices have no salary.

XV. ALABAMA.

Mobile, in the southern part of Alabama, was settled long since by the Spanish ; yet the territory, which now forms this state, contained but very few civilised inhabitants before 1810. Since that time its increase in population has been exceedingly rapid.

Alabama was erected into a territorial government in 1817 ; the inhabitants formed a constitution in 1819 ; and in 1820 it was admitted into the union.

The legislative power is vested in two branches, a senate and house of representatives, which together constitute the general assembly.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people, for two years ; and is eligible four years out of six. He must be a native citizen of the United States, or resident for five years in the state, and not under thirty years of age.

The senate consists of thirty-three members, elected by the people for three years, one-third being elected annually. Every senator must be a free white citizen of the United States, at least twenty-seven years of age. He must have been an inhabitant of the state two years immediately preceding the election, and of the district for which he is elected during the latter of these years.

The house of representatives consists of one hundred members, elected annually by the people. Every representative must be a white man, a citizen of the United States, an inhabitant of the state at least two years immediately preceding his election, the last of which was in the district for which he is elected, and must have attained the age of twenty-one years.

Chancellors, judges of the supreme court, of the circuit and inferior courts, are elected by joint vote of the general assembly, and hold their offices during six years. The attorney-general is elected in the same manner, and holds his office four years.

The secretary of state is elected by joint vote of the general assembly, and holds his office two years. The treasurer and the comptroller of public accounts are elected in the same manner annually.

The general assembly meets annually (at Tuscaloosa), on the fourth Monday in October, and the elections take place on the first Monday and following day in August, annually.

The right of suffrage is possessed by every white male citizen of twenty-one years of age, who has resided within the state one year next preceding an election, and the last three months within the county, city, or town, in which he offers his vote.

The judicial power is vested in one supreme court, in circuit courts, and such inferior courts as the general assembly may, from time to time, direct and establish. The judges are the reporters of their own decisions, and are allowed to print, at their own expense, any number, not exceeding 500 of their reports, to be circulated out of the state.

The supreme court has appellate jurisdiction only, and only upon points of law, taken up from

the circuit or county courts, by writ of error. This court sits at Tuscaloosa, the seat of government, on the first Mondays of January and June ; and it commonly sits six or eight weeks at each term.

The court of chancery was established in 1839, and re-modelled in 1841, and is divided into three divisions. One session of the court is held annually in each division, and the chancellors are required to alternate with each other, so that neither may preside twice in succession in either division. A separate chancery court is held in the county of Montgomery, on the first Monday in July in each year.

Salaries.—Governor, 2500 dollars ; secretary of state, fees and 1000 dollars ; comptroller of public accounts, fees and 1000 dollars ; state treasurer, fees and 1000 dollars ; attorney-general, fees and 425 dollars. The pay of the members of both houses is 4 dollars a day each. Chief justice, 2250 dollars ; two associate justices, each 2250 dollars.

XVI. MISSISSIPPI.

The governor is elected biennially by the people, and is ineligible for more than four years in any term of six years. He must be at least thirty years of age, and must have been a citizen of the United States for twenty years, resident in the state at least five years next preceding his election.

The legislative power is vested in two distinct branches, a senate and house of representatives, which together are styled the legislature of the state of Mississippi.

The senate consists of thirty members, citizens of the United States, at least thirty years of age, one half of the number being elected annually by the people, to serve four years. Every senator must have been an inhabitant of the state four years, and of the district for which he is elected one year, immediately preceding his election.

The house of representatives consists of ninety-one members, citizens of the United States, at least twenty-one years of age, elected biennially by the people. Every representative must have been a resident of the state two years, and of the county, city, or town for which he is elected, one year next preceding the election.

The Judiciary Power.—The judicial officers are elected by the people as follows :—The judges of the high court of errors and appeals, for the term of six years ; the judges of the circuit court, for the term of four years ; the chancellor, for the term of six years ; the judges of the court of probate, for the term of two years. The judges of the high court of appeals and errors and the chancellor are required to have attained the age of thirty years ; the judges of the circuit court and court of probate, twenty-six years.

Secretary, Treasurer, &c.—The secretary of state, the treasurer, and the sheriffs are elected by the people for the term of two years.

Right of Suffrage.—Every free white male person, twenty-one years of age and upwards, a citizen of the United States, who has resided in the state one year, and in the county where he offers his vote, four months preceding an election, is entitled to vote.

Salaries.—Governor, 3000 dollars ; secretary of state, 3000 dollars ; state treasurer, 2000 dollars ; auditor of public accounts, 3000 dollars.

Judiciary—High Court of Errors and Appeals.—Presiding judge, salary 3000 dollars ; two judges, each 3000 dollars ; attorney-general, 1000 dollars ; clerk.

This court, which has no jurisdiction except what properly belongs to a court of errors and appeals, holds its sessions annually at Jackson, commencing on the first Monday in January and July.

Superior Court of Chancery.—Chancellor, salary 4000 dollars ; clerk.

This court, which has jurisdiction over all matters, pleas, and complaints whatsoever, belonging to, or cognisable in, a court of equity, holds two sessions annually, on the first Monday of December and June, and continuing as long as business requires.

An inferior court of chancery, styled the "District Chancery Court of the State of Mississippi," was created by act, approved Feb. 26, 1842.

District Chancery Court.—Vice-chancellor, salary 3000 dollars, sits at Columbus, Fulton, Holly Springs, and Carrollton.

This court has concurrent power and jurisdiction within the district with the superior court of chancery, when the amount in controversy does not exceed 500,000 dollars. The vice-chancellor is elected for the term of four years ; appoints the clerks, who hold their office for four years ; he must be at least thirty years of age. Appeals may be made to the superior court of chancery, unless by consent of both parties, when the same may be taken directly to the high court of errors and appeals.

District or Circuit Courts.—The judicial divisions were re-organised in 1840, and formed into eleven districts, or circuits. The salary of the judges is 2000 dollars each.

A circuit court is holden in each county twice a year. This court has original jurisdiction in

civil cases, in which the principle of the sum in controversy exceeds 50 dollars. It has chancery jurisdiction in all cases under 500 dollars; and has power to foreclose mortgages, without limit as to sum. It has also exclusive criminal jurisdiction.

Judges of the high court of errors and appeals, and the chancellor, are chosen by the electors for six years; the judges of the circuit courts, attorney-general, and district attorneys, as well as all military officers, are chosen by the electors for four years; all other officers for two years.

XVII. LOUISIANA.

The country now forming the state of Louisiana, was separated from the rest in 1804, and called the Territory of Orleans; and, in 1812, it was admitted into the union as an independent state, by the name of Louisiana.

The constitution of this state was formed in 1812.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives.

The representatives are elected for two years, on the first Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, in July. Their number is sixty; and they are apportioned according to the number of electors, as ascertained by enumeration every four years. To be eligible, a residence for two years, and citizenship, with landed property to the value of 500 dollars, is required.

The members of the senate are elected for four years; one half being chosen every two years, at the time of the election of the representatives. The state is divided into seventeen senatorial districts, in each of which one senator is chosen, who must be at least twenty-seven years old, and have property in land to the value of 1000 dollars, and a citizen of the state for four years.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected for the term of four years—must be thirty-five years of age, a resident of the state for six years previous to his election, and possess within it landed property to the value of 5000 dollars. The people give their votes for a governor at the time and place of voting for representatives and senators; and on the second day of the succeeding session of the general assembly, the two houses, by a joint ballot, elect for governor, one of the two candidates who have the greatest number of votes. The governor's term of office commences on the fourth Monday succeeding his election.

The general assembly meets (since 1829), at Donaldsonville annually, on the first Monday in January; except in the years of the election of president of the United States, when it meets on the third Monday in November.

The right of suffrage is possessed by every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the county in which he offers to vote, one year next preceding the election, and who, in the last six months prior to said election, has paid a state tax.

The judiciary power is vested in a supreme court, which possesses appellate jurisdiction only, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The judges, attorneys-general, and prosecuting attorneys, are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

Governor's salary, 7500 dollars; pay of the members of both houses, four dollars a day each, during attendance.

The supreme court sits in the city of New Orleans, for the eastern district of the state, during the months of November, December, January, February, March, April, May, June, and July; and for the northern district, at Opelousas and Attakapas, during the months of August, September, and October. The nine district courts, with the exception of the courts in the first district, hold, in each parish, two sessions, during the year, to try causes originally instituted before them, and appeals from the parish courts. The parish courts hold their regular sessions in each parish, on the first Monday in each month. The courts in the first district, composed of the district, parish, and criminal courts, and courts of probate, are in session during the whole year, excepting the months of July, August, September, and October, in which they hold special courts when necessary. The salary of each of the five judges of the supreme court is 5000 dollars, the judge of the first district court, 4000 dollars, the other 7000 dollars per annum. There are, also, a court of error, court of commerce, parish court of New Orleans, probate court, and courts of appeal in criminal cases.

XVIII. TENNESSEE.

The country was included within the limits of North Carolina till 1790, when it was placed under a separate territorial government, under the name of the "Territory South of the Ohio;" and, in 1796, the inhabitants formed a constitution, and Tennessee was admitted into the union as an independent state.

The governor is elected by the people biennially, and is not eligible for more than six years in any term of eight years. He must have attained the age of thirty years, and must be a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the state seven years next preceding his election.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, which are styled the general assembly.

The senate consists of twenty-five members, elected by the people once in two years. Every senator must have attained the age of thirty years. He must be a citizen of the United States, and an inhabitant of the state three years, and of the district for which he is elected one year immediately preceding his election.

The house of representatives consists of seventy-five members, elected at the same time and for the same period as the senators. Every representative must be a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, a citizen of the state three years, and a resident in the county he represents one year immediately preceding his election.

The Judiciary Power.—All judges are elected by joint vote of the general assembly. The judges of the supreme courts are elected for twelve years, and must have attained the age of thirty-five years. The judges of the inferior courts are elected for eight years, and must have attained the age of thirty years. The state attorneys are elected in same manner. Their term of service is six years.

Secretary and Treasurer.—The secretary of state and the state treasurer are elected by joint vote of the general assembly, the former for four, and the latter for two years.

Right of Suffrage.—Every free white man of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the county where he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote; but no person is disqualified from voting on account of colour who is by the laws of the state a competent witness in a court of justice against a white man.

Election, &c.—The election is held on the first Thursday of August biennially. The general assembly meet biennially at Nashville on the first Monday of October.

Salaries.—Governor, 2000 dollars; secretary of state, fees and 750 dollars; treasurer, 1500 dollars.

Supreme Court.—Three judges each 1800 dollars; chancery court, four judges, each 1500 dollars; fourteen district courts, salary of each judge, 1500 dollars.

XIX. KENTUCKY.

The country formed a part of the state of Virginia till 1790; and, in 1792, it was admitted into the union as an independent state.

On the separation of Kentucky from Virginia, in 1790, a constitution was adopted, which continued in force till 1799, when a new one was formed instead of it; and this is now in force.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, which, together, are styled, "The General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Kentucky."

The representatives are elected annually, and are apportioned, every four years, among the different counties, according to the number of electors. Their present number is 100, which is the highest number that the constitution authorises; 58 being the lowest. Eligibility requires a residence of two years, and being a citizen of the United States.

The senators are elected for four years, one quarter of them being chosen annually. Their present number is 38; and they cannot exceed this number, nor fall short of 24. To be eligible, a senator must have had a residence in the state for six years, and in the district one year.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected for four years, and is ineligible for the succeeding seven years after the expiration of his term of office; he must have resided six years in the state, be at least thirty-five years of age, and a citizen of the United States. At the election of a governor, a lieutenant-governor is also chosen, who is speaker of the senate, and on whom the duties of the governor devolve, in case of his absence or removal.

The representatives, and one quarter of the members of the senate, are elected annually by the people, on the first Monday in August; the governor is elected by the people, every fourth year, at the same time; and he commences the execution of his office on the fourth Tuesday succeeding the day of the commencement of the election at which he is chosen. The polls are kept open three days; and the votes are given openly, or *vivâ voce*, and not by ballot.

The general assembly meets (at Frankfort) annually, on the first Monday in November.

The constitution grants the right of suffrage to every free male citizen (people of colour excepted), who has attained the age of twenty-one years, and has resided in the state two years, or in the county where he offers his vote, one year, next preceding the election.

The judiciary power is vested in a supreme court, styled the court of appeals, and in such inferior courts as the general assembly may, from time to time, erect and establish. The judges of the different courts and justices of the peace, hold their offices during good behaviour, and are appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate.

Salaries.—Governor, 2500 dollars; lieutenant-governor, and speaker of the senate, are paid

six dollars a day while presiding over the senate; secretary of state, 1000 dollars; auditor of the public accounts, 1500 dollars; register of the land office, 1250 dollars; treasurer, 1500 dollars; second auditor, 1250 dollars. The senators and representatives receive two dollars each for every day's attendance, and three dollars for every twenty miles' travel.

Court of Appeals.—Chief-justice, 1500 dollars; second judge, 1500 dollars; third judge, 1500 dollars; attorney-general, fees and 300 dollars.

Circuit Courts.—The state is divided into eighteen districts for the holding of the circuit courts. The circuit judges receive a salary of 1500 dollars each; and an attorney to each court, with a salary of 300 dollars and fees; chancellor's salary, 2000 dollars.

County courts are held by justices of the peace, who are paid by fees. Any three justices of the peace may hold a court once in every month, except the month when the circuit court is held. There is also a chancery court, and a general court, with two judges, salaries 1300 dollars.

XX. OHIO.

The first permanent settlement of Ohio was commenced at Marietta, in 1788; in 1789, the country was put under a territorial government, and called the Western Territory, which name was afterwards altered to the Territory Northwest of the Ohio; and, in 1802, it was erected into an independent state.

The constitution of this state was formed, at Chillicothe, in 1802.

The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, which, together, are styled "The General Assembly of the State of Ohio."

The representatives are elected annually, on the second Tuesday in October; and they are apportioned among the counties, according to the number of white male inhabitants, above twenty-one years of age. Their number cannot be less than thirty-six, nor more than the present number, seventy-two.

The senators are chosen biennially, and are apportioned according to the number of white male inhabitants, of twenty-one years of age. Their number cannot be less than one-third, nor more than the present number, one-half of the number of representatives.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people for two years, on the second Tuesday in October; and his term of service commences on the first Monday in December. He must be a citizen of the United States, at least thirty years of age, and an inhabitant of the state for four years previous to his election.

The general assembly meets annually (at Columbus), on the first Monday in December.

The right of suffrage is granted to all white male inhabitants, above the age of twenty-one years, who have resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and who have paid, or are charged with a state or county tax.

The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, in courts of common pleas, for each county, and such other courts as the legislature may, from time to time, establish. The judges are elected by a joint ballot of both houses of the general assembly, for the term of seven years.

Salaries.—Governor, 1500 dollars; secretary of state, 1000 dollars; auditor of state, 1200 dollars; treasurer, 1200 dollars; warden of state penitentiary, 1500 dollars; clerk of audit office, 850 dollars; adjutant-general, 300 dollars; quarter-master-general, 100 dollars; and librarian of state, 400 dollars.

The senators receive three dollars a day each, and three cents a mile for travel; four commissioners of public works, 1000 dollars each.

Supreme Court.—Chief judge's salary, 1500 dollars; and three associate judges, each 1500 dollars. Two judges form a quorum, who hold a court in each county once a year.

Courts of Common Pleas.—For the holding of the courts of common pleas, the state is divided into fifteen districts or circuits, in each of which there is a presiding judge, who holds annually three courts in each county within his district. The salary of each of these judges is 1200 dollars. These judges are severally assisted by three associate judges in each county, who receive two dollars a day during their attendance at court.

The Superior Court of Cincinnati.—Judge's salary, 1200 dollars. This court has concurrent jurisdiction with the court of common pleas, of the county of Hamilton, in matters of common law as well as in cases in chancery.

XXI. INDIANA.

In 1800, Indiana was erected into a territorial government; in 1816, its constitution was formed, and it was admitted into the union as an independent state.

The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people for a term of two years, and may be once re-elected. He must have been a resident of the state two years before his election, and a citizen of the United States for five years. At every election of governor, a lieutenant-governor, qualified in like manner as the governor, is also chosen, who is president of

the senate, and on whom, in case of the death, resignation, or removal of the governor, the powers and duties of governor devolve. In an equal division of votes, he has the casting vote.

The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate, the eighteen members of which are elected for two years, and a house of representatives, elected annually. Senators must be citizens of the United States, and qualified electors in their counties.

The number of representatives is 100; and they are apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of white male citizens, above twenty-one years of age. The number of senators, who are apportioned in like manner, cannot be less than one-third, nor more than one-half of the number of representatives.

The representatives and members of the senate are elected annually, on the first Monday in August; and the governor is chosen on the same day, every second year.

The general assembly meets annually (at Indianapolis) on the first Monday in December.

The right of suffrage is granted to all male citizens of the age of twenty-one years or upwards, who may have resided in the state one year immediately preceding an election.

The secretary of state, treasurer, and auditor are elected by joint vote of the general assembly, the first for four, the two last for three years.

The judiciary power is vested in one supreme court, in circuit courts, and in such other inferior courts as the general assembly may establish. The supreme court consists of three judges; and each of the circuit courts consists of a president and two associate judges. The judges are all appointed for the term of seven years. The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate; the presidents of the circuit courts by the legislature, and the associate judges are elected by the people.

Governor's salary, 1500 dollars; lieutenant-governor, pay 6 dollars a day during the session of the general assembly. Pay of the members of both houses, 2 dollars a day each. President of the state bank, 1300 dollars; cashier, 1000 dollars.

Judiciary.—Three judges of the supreme court, salary, each 1500 dollars; seven president judges of the circuit courts, each 700 dollars; the associate judges receive each 2 dollars a day; the judges of the twelve circuit courts, each 1000 dollars.

XXII. ILLINOIS.

Almost all the settlements which have been formed by the citizens of the United States have been begun since 1800. In 1809 Illinois was erected into a territorial government; in 1818, the inhabitants formed a constitution, and Illinois was admitted into the union as an independent state.

The governor is elected by the people once in four years, and is ineligible for more than four years in any term of eight years. He must be at least thirty years of age, and must have been a citizen of the United States thirty years, and resident within the limits of the state two years next preceding his election.

The lieutenant-governor is elected at the same time, in the same manner, and must possess the same qualifications. He is speaker of the senate, has a voice and vote on all subjects, and acts as governor in the event of that officer's death, impeachment, resignation, or absence from the state, which meets on the 1st of December, biennially, at Springfield.

The legislative power is vested in two distinct branches, the senate and house of representatives, which together are styled the general assembly.

The senate consists of forty members, citizens of the United States, at least twenty-five years of age, elected by the people once in four years, one half being elected biennially. Every senator must have resided one year in the county or district for which he is elected, and must have paid a state or county tax.

The house of representatives consists of ninety-one members, citizens of the United States, at least twenty-one years of age, elected once in two years by the people. Every representative must be an inhabitant of the state, and must have resided within the district or county for which he is elected, at least twelve months preceding the election.

The Judiciary Power.—The judges of the supreme court and of the inferior courts are appointed by joint vote of the general assembly, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

Secretary and Treasurer.—The secretary of state is appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate. The state treasurer is appointed biennially by the joint vote of the general assembly.

Right of Suffrage.—All white male inhabitants, above the age of twenty-one years, who have resided in the state six months next preceding the election, are entitled to vote in the county or district in which they actually reside at the time of election.

Salaries.—Governor, 2000 dollars; lieutenant-governor, six dollars per day, during session, and four dollars for every twenty miles he travels; pay of each member usually four dollars a day; secretary of state, 1500 dollars per annum; auditor, 1850 dollars; treasurer, 1000 dollars.

Supreme Court.—Chief justice's salary, 1500 dollars ; eight associate judges, each 1500 dollars ; attorney-general, 100 dollars.

Five judges constitute a quorum. The judges all perform circuit duties (the state being divided into nine circuits), or preside in the circuit courts. There are nine state attorneys, who are elected by the legislature biennially. Salary 350 dollars and fees.

The only other courts now in the state, are those held by probate justices and justices of the peace. The former have jurisdiction in actions of debt or assumpsit by or against administrators, &c., where the amount in controversy does not exceed 1000 dollars, and the general powers of probate courts. The latter have jurisdiction in actions of debt or assumpsit, not exceeding in amount 100 dollars ; and exclusive jurisdiction in cases of assaults and battery. In trespass to personal property and trover, where the damages claimed do not exceed twenty dollars, justices of the peace have also jurisdiction.

In all suits for debts, where the damages claimed exceed twenty dollars, the circuit courts have jurisdiction, and they are superior courts of general jurisdiction, both civil and criminal.

The governor and justices of the supreme court constitute a council of revision, which act upon all laws, either approving or disapproving them.

XXIII. MISSOURI.

Missouri formed a part of the extensive country of Louisiana, which was purchased of France, by the United States, in 1803.

In 1804, this country was separated from the rest of Louisiana, and erected into a territorial government, by the name of the "Territory of Louisiana," afterwards altered to the "Territory of Missouri;" and, in 1821, it was admitted into the union as an independent state.

The governor is elected once in four years by the people. He must be at least thirty-five years of age, and a natural-born citizen of the United States. He must also have been a resident of the state at least four years next preceding his election, and is ineligible for the next four years after the expiration of his term.

The lieutenant-governor is elected at the same time, in the same manner, and must possess the same qualifications as the governor. He is president of the senate ; in committee of the whole he may debate on all questions ; and when there is an equal division in the senate or in joint vote of both houses, he gives the casting vote. He acts as governor when that office becomes vacant by death, resignation, removal from office or otherwise, until the office is filled.

The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, which consists of a senate and house of representatives.

The senate consists of eighteen members, free white male citizens of the United States, at least thirty years of age, elected by the people for four years, one-half of the number being elected biennially. Every senator must have been an inhabitant of the state four years preceding his election, and of the district which he represents one year before his election. He must also have paid a state or county tax.

The house of representatives consists of forty-nine members, free white male citizens of the United States, at least twenty-four years of age, elected biennially by the people. Every representative must have been an inhabitant of the state two years immediately preceding his election, and of the county which he represents one year before the election, and must also have paid a state or county tax.

The Judiciary Power.—The governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, appoints the judges of the superior and inferior courts, and the chancellor, who hold their offices during good behaviour. No person can be appointed to either of these posts until he shall have attained the age of thirty years, or exercise the duties after he shall have attained the age of sixty-five years.

Secretary, Treasurer, &c.—The secretary of state is appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and holds his office four years. The treasurer is elected by joint vote of the general assembly biennially. The auditor of public accounts is appointed in the same manner, and holds his office for the same length of time as the secretary of state.

Right of Suffrage.—Every free white male citizen, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who has resided in the state one year before an election, the last three months of this period in the district in which he offers his vote, is deemed a qualified elector.

Election.—The general election is held biennially on the first Monday of August. The general assembly meets biennially at Jefferson City on the first Monday of December, also biennially. The next election and meeting of the general assembly will be in 1844.

Salaries.—Governor, 2000 dollars ; auditor, 1500 dollars ; attorney-general, fees and 650 dollars ; speaker of the house,

Supreme Court.—Presiding judge, 1100 dollars ; two associates, each 1100 dollars.

Adjutant-general, 100 dollars ; quartermaster-general, 100 dollars ; surveyor-general, 1500 dollars ; cashier of state bank, 2000 dollars.

The lieutenant-governor is, *ex officio*, president of the senate, and receives 4 dols. 50 cents a day while presiding over the senate; and the pay of the speaker of the house of representatives is the same. The senators are chosen every fourth year, and the representatives every second year. Their pay is three dollars a day. The legislature meets at the city of Jefferson, biennially, on the fourth Monday in November.

The Supreme Court is held at the city of Jefferson. This court exercises appellate jurisdiction from the circuit court, and has original jurisdiction in cases of habeas corpus, mandamus, &c. The decisions of this court are published at the end of each term in some newspaper printed in the district; and they are collected and published in a pamphlet form semi-annually by the attorney-general. The judges of the fourteen circuit courts have each a salary of 1000 dollars, and the attorney 250 dollars and fees.

A circuit court for each county is held twice in each year. The jurisdiction of the circuit court extends to all matters of tort and contracts over ninety dollars, where the demand is liquidated, and fifty dollars, where the agreement is parol. It has exclusive criminal jurisdiction, and superintending control over the county courts and justices of the peace, subject to the correction of the supreme court. The circuit court is held in each county. The judges of the supreme and circuit courts are nominated by the governor, and confirmed by the senate; and they hold their office during good behaviour, though not beyond sixty-five years of age.

Court of Common Pleas, of St. Louis—Judge's salary, 2000 dollars.

Criminal Court of St. Louis.—Judge's salary, 1000 dollars.

This is a local tribunal, established for exercising criminal jurisdiction only in the county of St. Louis. An appeal lies to the supreme court. The judge is appointed by the concurrent vote of the two houses of the general assembly; and he holds his office during good behaviour.

The jurisdiction of the county courts is limited to matters of probate and local county affairs, as roads, &c. A county court sits in each county, and is composed of three justices, who are elected by the people, and hold their offices for four years. An appeal lies to the circuit court.

XXIV. ARKANSAS.

The Governor is elected by the people once in four years. He must be at least thirty years of age, and a native-born citizen of the United States, or a resident in the state ten years previous to the adoption of the constitution. He must also have been a resident of the state four years next preceding his election.

The Legislative Power is vested in a general assembly, which consists of a senate and house of representatives.

The Senate consists of twenty-one members, free white male citizens of the United States, at least thirty years of age. The term of senatorial service is four years, and one-half the number is chosen biennially by the people. No one is eligible unless a resident of the state for one year preceding, and an actual resident of the district at the time of the election.

The House of Representatives consists of sixty-six members, free white male citizens of the United States, at least twenty-five years of age. The representatives are chosen biennially by the people, and no one is eligible unless an actual resident of the county in which he is a candidate.

The Judiciary Power.—The judges of the supreme and circuit courts are elected by joint vote of the general assembly. The judges of the supreme court must be at least thirty years of age. They hold their offices eight years. The judges of the circuit courts must be at least twenty-five years of age. They hold their offices four years.

Secretary, Treasurer, &c.—The secretary, treasurer, and auditor, are elected by the general assembly. The secretary holds his office four years; the treasurer and auditor each two years.

Right of Suffrage.—Every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who has resided in the state six months, is deemed a qualified elector in the county or district where he actually resides.

Election.—The election takes place biennially on the first Monday of October. The votes are given *viva voce*. The general assembly meets at Little Rock on the first Monday of December, also biennially. The next election and the next meeting of the general assembly will be in 1844.

Salaries.—Governor, 1800 dollars; secretary of state, 600 dollars; auditor of public accounts, 800 dollars; treasurer, 800 dollars; president of the senate, ; speaker of the house,

Supreme Court.—Chief justice, 1500 dollars; two associate justices, each 1500 dollars.

Seven judges of circuit courts, each 1000 dollars.

The supreme court has appellate jurisdiction only, except in particular cases pointed out by the constitution. The judges are elected by the general assembly, by a joint vote of both houses, for eight years.

The circuit court has original jurisdiction over all criminal cases which are not otherwise provided for by law; and exclusive original jurisdiction of all crimes amounting to felony at the common law; and original jurisdiction of all civil cases which are not cognisable before justices of the peace, until otherwise directed by the general assembly; and original jurisdiction in all matters of contract where the sum in controversy is over one hundred dollars. The judges are elected by the general assembly, for a term of four years.

This state chooses but one member of the United States house of representatives.

XXV. MICHIGAN.

The Governor is elected once in two years by the people. He must have been a citizen of the United States five years, and a resident of the state two years next preceding his election.

The Lieutenant-Governor is elected for the same time, and in the same manner, and must possess the same qualifications. He is president of the senate, in committee of the whole may debate on all questions, and when there is an equal division, may give the casting vote. He acts as governor in the event of that officer's decease, impeachment, resignation, or absence.

The Legislative Power is vested in a senate and house of representatives.

The Senate consists of eighteen members, elected by the people for two years, one-half of the number being elected annually. Senators must be citizens of the United States, and qualified electors in the respective counties and districts which they represent; a removal from which is deemed a vacation of their seats.

The House of Representatives consists of fifty-four members, elected annually by the people. The requisite qualifications of representatives are similar to those of senators.

The Judiciary Power.—The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and hold their offices seven years. Judges of all county courts, associate judges of circuit courts, and judges of probate, are elected by the qualified electors of the county in which they reside, and hold their offices four years.

Secretary, Treasurer, &c.—The secretary of state is appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, and holds his office two years. The treasurer is appointed by joint vote of the legislature, and holds his office two years.

The auditor-general, attorney-general, and a prosecuting attorney for each county, are appointed in same manner as the secretary of state. They also hold their offices for the term of two years.

Right of Suffrage.—Every white male citizen above the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the state six months next preceding any election, is entitled to vote at such election, in the district, county, or township, in which he resides, only.

The annual election takes place on the first Monday of November annually. The legislature meets annually at Detroit on the first Monday of January.

Governor's salary, 1500 dollars; lieutenant-governor, during session of legislature, per day, 6 dollars; treasurer, 1000 dollars; secretary of state, 1000 dollars.

Supreme Court.—Chief-justice, 1600 dollars; three associates, each 1500 dollars; attorney-general, with fees, 500 dollars.

Court of Chancery.—Chancellor, 1500 dollars.

There are five chancery circuits. The terms of the 1st circuit are held annually at the city of Detroit, on the 3d Tuesday in July, and the 1st Tuesday in February; of the 2d circuit, at Ann Arbor, on the 2d Tuesday in January and July; of the 3d circuit, at Kalamazoo, on the 3d Tuesday in January, and the Thursday next after the 4th Tuesday in June; of the 4th circuit, at Pontiac, on the 1st Tuesday in May, and the Tuesday after the 2d Monday in November; of the 5th circuit, at Adrian, on the 1st Tuesday in January, and the 3d Tuesday in June.

The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate, for the period of seven years. The terms of this court are held at Detroit, on the 1st Tuesday in January and June; at Ann Arbor, on the last Tuesday in December; at Kalamazoo, on the 1st Tuesday in July; and at Pontiac, on the 4th Tuesday in June.

Circuit Courts.—There are four judicial circuits, in each of which one of the judges of the supreme court sits as presiding judge; and a district criminal court for the counties of , with a presiding judge; salary, 1000 dollars.

XXVI. DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

The district of Columbia is a tract of country ten miles square, situated on both sides of the Potomac, comprising two counties, Washington and Alexandria. It was ceded to the United States in 1790, and is under the immediate government of congress. The city of Washington, which is included within this district, became the seat of the government of the United States in 1800; and it is the residence of the president and the other chief executive officers, of whom an account has been already given.

The congress of the United States meets every year, at Washington, on the first Monday in December, unless it is otherwise provided by law; and the supreme court of the United States meets here, annually, on the second Monday in January.

The *Circuit Court* for the district of Columbia, is held at Washington, on the second Monday in April and the third Monday in December; and at Alexandria, on the second Monday in April and the fourth Monday in November; and the *District Court*, on the first Mondays in June and December.

Circuit Court.—Chief judge's salary, 2700 dollars; two assistant judges, each 2500 dollars.

District Courts.—Washington, chief judge, 2700 dollars; assistant judge, 2500 dollars; Georgetown, ditto, 2500 dollars. There are also a criminal and an orphan court.

XXVII. TERRITORY OF FLORIDA.

In 1821, it was ceded by Spain to the United States; and, in 1822, both parts, East and West Florida, were formed into one government or province, under the name of the *Territory of Florida*.

Governor, first appointed in 1822, salary, 2500 dollars; secretary, 1500 dollars; pay of the ministers, 4 dollars per diem.

The legislative council consists of a senate of 12 members, and a house of representatives of 29 members, who are elected annually, meet at Tallahassee, on the first Monday in January.

It has five district courts, two of the judges have salaries of 2300 dollars each; and three have each a salary of 1800 dollars. The territory is divided into twenty counties, in each of which courts are held twice a year. There is a court of appeal, in which the judges of the supreme court preside, held annually at Tallahassee.

XXVIII. TERRITORY OF WISCONSIN.

A government for this territory was organised in 1836, with a governor and legislature consisting of a council of 13 members, elected for four years; and a house of representatives, of 26 members, elected for two years. Governor's salary, 2500 dollars; secretary of state, 1200 dollars; and attorney-general, 200 dollars. Pay of councillors and representatives, 2 dollars a day, and 3 dollars for every twenty miles they travel. Salary of chief justice, and of two assistant judges, 1800 dollars each.

XXIX. IOWA TERRITORY.

This country was erected into a territorial government by an act of congress, of June, 1838, to take effect on the 4th of July following. The legislative power is vested in the governor and a legislative assembly, which meets annually on the first Monday of December, at Iowa city, the seat of government; and it consists of 13 members of the council, elected for two years, and of a house of representatives consisting of 26 members, elected annually. Pay of the members, 3 dollars a day, and 3 dollars for every twenty miles' travel.

The sum of 20,000 dollars was appropriated by the government of the United States, for the erection of public buildings at the seat of government; 20,000 dollars for the erection of a penitentiary, (at Fort Madison,) and 5000 dollars for a library. These public works are now in progress.

The judges are appointed for four years, and the term of the present judges expires July 4th, 1846. The territory is divided into three judicial districts, and the judges perform circuit duties. The supreme court, composed of all the judges, meets annually, in July, at Iowa city.

Salary of governor and superintendent of Indian affairs, 2500 dollars; secretary, 1200 dollars; auditor, 100 dollars; treasurer and librarian, 210 dollars; territorial agent and superintendent of capital, 1000 dollars; director and warden of the penitentiary, 500 dollars.

Judiciary.—Chief justice and two associate justices, each, 1800 dollars; attorney, fees and 200 dollars; marshal, fees and 200 dollars; reporter, 300 dollars; clerk, fees; three district attorneys, fees.

PUBLIC DEPARTMENTS OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT—WASHINGTON.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE.—This department was created by an act of Congress of the 15th of September, 1789: by a previous act of the 27th July, 1789, it was styled the Department of Foreign Affairs; and combines the attributions of the foreign and home departments in England.

The functions of the secretary of state are: conducting the arrangement of all treaties between

the United States and foreign powers ; corresponding, officially, with the ministers of the United States at foreign courts, and with those of foreign powers resident in the United States ; the publication and distribution of all the acts and resolutions of Congress, and all treaties with foreign powers and Indian tribes ; the preserving of the originals of all laws and treaties ; and of the public correspondence growing out of the intercourse between the United states and foreign nations ; he grants passports to American citizens visiting foreign countries ; preserves the evidence of copyrights, and has control of the office, which issues patents for useful inventions. He has the charge of the seal of the United States, but cannot affix it to any commission until signed by the president, nor to any instrument or act, without the special authority of the president. In his department are deposited copies of the statutes of each state.

	dollars.
<i>Salaries of the Officers in the Department of State</i> —1 secretary of state	6000
1 Chief clerk	2000
11 Clerks: 1 at 1600, 1 at 1500, 6 at 1400, 1 at 1000, 1 at 900, and 1 at 800.....	
Disbursing agent	1456
Translator and librarian	1600
1 Messenger.....	700
1 Assistant Messenger	350
<i>Patent Office</i> .—Commissioner	3000
Chief clerk	1600
2 Examiners, each	1500
2 Assistant ditto	1250
Draughtsman	1200
1 Mechanist.....	1250
1 Messenger.....	400

Salaries of Envoys Extraordinary, and Ministers Plenipotentiaries, in Foreign Countries.

	Ministers. dollars.	Secretaries of Legation. dollars.
Great Britain, London	9000	2000
Russia, St. Petersburg	9000	2000
France, Paris	9000	2000
Prussia, Berlin	9000	2000
Mexico, Mexico	9000	2000
Austria, Vienna.....	9000	2000
Spain	9000	
Brazil, Rio de Janeiro (Minister Resident)	9000	2000
Constantinople	6000	
China Commission, &c	9000	4500

Salaries of Chargé d'Affaires of the United States Government, in Foreign Countries.

	dollars.		dollars.
Danish Dominions, Copenhagen	4500	Two Sicilies, Naples	4500
Portugal, Lisbon	4500	Texas, Washington	4500
Belgium, Brussels	4500	New Granada, Bogota	4500
Holland, Hague	4500	Venezuela, Caraccas	4500
Norway and Sweden, Stockholm	4500	Chili, St. Iago	4500
Sardinian States, Turin.....	4500	Peru, Lima.....	4500

The United States have Consuls at the following places, viz. :

In Austria—Venice, Trieste, and Vienna ; Barbary—Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Tangier ;* Belgium—Antwerp ; Brazil—Rio Janeiro, San Salvador, Pernambuco, Para, Montevideo Island, Maranhão, Rio Grande, Santos, and J. St. Catherine ; Buenos Ayres—Buenos Ayres ; Central America—Guatemala and Nicaragua ; Chili—Valparaiso and Santiago ; Coquimbo—Talcahuano ; China—Canton ; Colombian States—Carthagena, La Guayra, Santa Martha, Porto Cabello, Panama, and Maracaibo ; Denmark and dependencies—Copenhagen, Elsinour, St. Thomas, and St. Croix ; Equador—Guaquil ; France and dependencies—Paris, Bordeaux, Marseilles, Nantes, Havre-de-Grace, Lyons, Sedan, La Rochelle, Martinique, and Guadeloupe ; Germany—Cassel, Rostock, Frankfort, Duchy of Baden, and Munich ; Great Britain and dependencies—London, Liverpool, Bristol, Falmouth, Plymouth, Hull, Cowes, Glasgow, Leith, Dundee, Dublin, Cork, Belfast, Londonderry, Galway, Gibraltar, Malta, Isle of France, Cape of Good Hope, Turk's

* The consuls at London, Paris, Tangier, and Canton, are each said to have salaries of 2000 dollars. All the others are unpaid, except by fees.

Island, Bermuda, Nassau, N. P., Antigua, &c., Kingston, J., Trinidad, Barbadoes, Malta, St. Helena, British Guiana, Halifax, N. S., St. John's, N. B., Pulose, N. S., Sydney, N. S., Bombay, Singapore, Calcutta, Hobart Town, and Sydney, N. S. W. ; Greece—Athens ; Hanseatic Towns—Hamburg, and Bremen ; Hayti—Port au Prince, aux Cayes, and Cape Haytien ; Holland and dependencies—Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Isle Curaçoa, Batavia, and East India Island ; Italian States—Leghorn, Florence, Genoa, Nice, Rome, Ancona, Naples, Palermo, and Messina ; Mexican States—Mexico, Tampico, Acapulco, Vera Cruz, Mazatlan, Matamoros, Santa Fé, Campeche, Guaymas, &c., Tabasco, Laguna, Monterey, and San Blas ; Mascate—Zanziban ; Peru—Lima, and Paita ; Portugal and dependencies—Lisbon, Oporto, Madeira, Fayal, and Cape Verd ; Prussia—Elbervelt, and Stettin ; Roman States—Rome ; Russia—St. Petersburg, Riga, Odessa, and Archangel ; Sandwich Islands—Sandwich Islands, Otaheite, and Society Islands ; Saxony—Leipzig ; Spain and dependencies—Cadiz, Barcelona, Malaga, Bilboa, Manilla, Teneriffe, Balearic Islands, Havana, Trinidad, C., St. Jago, Baracoa, do., Friegos, do., Cardinas, do., Matanzas, do., Ponce, P. R., Guayama, Mayaguez, do., and St. John's, do. ; Sweden and Norway—Stockholm, Gottenburg, and Bergen, N'y ; Switzerland—Basil, and Zurich ; Texas—Galveston, Matagorda, Sotiene, and Velasco ; Turkey—Constantinople, Smyrna, and Alexandria ; Urugu—Monte Video ; Wurtemberg—Stuttgart.

Treasury Department.—This department was created by an act of Congress the 2d of September, 1789. The secretary of the treasury superintends all the fiscal concerns of the government, and, upon his own responsibility, recommends to congress measures for improving the condition of the revenue.

All the public accounts are finally settled at the treasury department ; for which purpose it is divided into the office of the secretary, as general superintendent ; the offices of two comptrollers, five auditors, a treasurer, a registrar, and a solicitor. The auditors of the public accounts are empowered to administer oaths or affirmations to witnesses, for the due examination of the accounts.

First Comptroller of the Treasury.—The first comptroller examines all accounts settled by the first and fifth auditors, certifies the balances arising thereon to the registrar ; countersigns all warrants legally drawn by the secretary of the treasury ; reports to the secretary the official forms to be used in the different offices for collecting the public revenue ; and the manner and form of keeping and stating the accounts of the several persons employed therein. He superintends the preservation of the public accounts subject to his revision, and provides for the regular payment of all monies which may be collected.

Second Comptroller.—The jurisdiction of the second comptroller extends to the final decision upon all accounts originating in the war and navy departments. From his decision there is no legitimate appeal, except by application and appeal to congress. Besides the examination and revisal of accounts settled in the offices of the second, third, and fourth auditors, it is the second comptroller's further duty to decide on all appeals from the decisions of the respective auditors ; to register the reports of certificates of balances for, or against the United States ; to register and countersign all the requisitions legally drawn by the secretaries of the war and navy departments ; to register and preserve all contracts and bonds entered into or taken by those departments ; to direct suits and stoppages on account of delinquencies ; to keep the account with each specific appropriation, and to make the annual and other statements of disbursements and the state of appropriations required by law, or the heads of departments ; and to prescribe the forms and manner of keeping and stating the accounts, and to superintend their preservation.

First Auditor.—This functionary receives all accounts accruing in the treasury department, and in relation to the revenue and the civil list. After examination, he certifies the balance, and transmits the accounts, with the vouchers and certificates, to the first comptroller, for his decision thereon.

Second Auditor.—This auditor receives and settles :—1. All accounts relative to the pay of the army, subsistence and forage of officers, and pay, subsistence, and clothing of their servants. 2. All accounts appertaining to the clothing and purchasing department. 3. All accounts for the contingent disbursements of the army, for which no specific appropriations are made by congress. 4. All accounts relating to the purchase of medicines, drugs, surgical instruments, hospital stores, &c. ; also to the claims of private physicians, for medical services rendered sick officers and soldiers, who cannot be attended by the surgeons of the army. 5. All accounts relating to the recruiting service. 6. All accounts of the ordnance department ; those of the various arsenals ; and accounts appertaining to the armament of new fortifications, and to arming and equipping the militia, &c. 7. Accounts for disbursements at the national armories. 8. All accounts appertaining to disbursements in the Indian department, such as pay of agents, presents, annuities, expense of holding treaties, running of boundary lines, contingent expenses, &c., and the property accounts of the army, arising out of the foregoing expenditures.

Third Auditor.—The duties of the office of the third auditor extend to the auditing of all accounts for the quartermaster's department, both as to money and property ; and the same as to the accounts for subsistence for the army, also of accounts for fortifications ; for the Military

Academy ; for roads, surveys, and other internal improvements ; for revolutionary, invalid, and half-pay pensions ; pensions to widows and orphans ; of outstanding claims arising before and during the late war ; and of all unsettled accounts of the war department, from the commencement of the government to the 1st of July, 1815. There are employed in this office :—One chief clerk, assisting the auditor in the general superintendence ; two clerks as book-keepers of the principal books ; three clerks as examiners of accounts in the quartermaster's department, fortifications, Military Academy, and internal improvements ; two clerks as examiners of subsistence accounts ; three clerks as examiners of pension accounts ; two clerks as examiners of soldiers' claims, and pensions to widows and orphans ; one clerk as examiner of paymasters' accounts, and other unsettled accounts of the late war ; one clerk engaged in recording reports and requisitions, one clerk engaged in recording letters and copying documents.

Fourth Auditor.—The fourth auditor receives all accounts accruing in the navy department, or relative to it. He examines the accounts, certifies the balances, and transmits the accounts, with the vouchers and certificates, to the second comptroller, for his decision upon them.

Fifth Auditor.—The fifth auditor receives all accounts accruing in, or relative to, the department of state, the general post-office, and those arising out of Indian trade ; examines them, certifies the balances, and transmits the accounts, with the vouchers and certificates, to the first comptroller for his decision upon them. To the fifth auditor has also been assigned the duties heretofore performed by the commissioner of the revenue in superintending the building and repairing of light-houses and light vessels, beacons, buoys, and piers, the supplying of the light-houses with oil, and the adjustment of the expenditures of the light-house establishment.

Treasurer.—The treasurer receives and keeps the moneys of the United States, and disburses the same upon warrants drawn by the secretary of the treasury, countersigned by the proper comptroller and auditor, and recorded by the register.

Register.—The register of the treasury keeps all accounts of the receipts and expenditures of the public money, and of all debts due to or from the United States ; he keeps the district tonnage accounts of the United States ; he receives from the comptrollers the accounts which have been finally adjusted, and, with their vouchers and certificates, preserves them ; he records all warrants for the receipt or payment of moneys at the treasury, certifies the same thereon, and transmits to the secretary of the treasury copies of the certificates of balances of accounts adjusted. By an act of the 10th of February, 1820, it is also made the duty of the register of the treasury to prepare statistical accounts of the commerce of the United States to be laid before congress annually.

Solicitor of the Treasury.—The office of the solicitor of the treasury was created by the act of the 29th of May, 1830, after having been recommended by several administrations. He superintends all the civil suits, commenced in the name of the United States, in all the courts, until they are carried up to the supreme court of the United States, when they come under the superintendence of the attorney-general. He instructs the district attorneys, marshals, and clerks, in all matters and proceedings appertaining to those suits, and receives from them, after each term of court, reports of their situation and progress. He receives from collectors reports of custom-house bonds put in suit, and of informations, &c., directed by them. He establishes, with the approbation of the secretary of the treasury, such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with law, for the observance of collectors, district attorneys, and marshals, as may be deemed necessary for the just responsibility of those officers and the prompt collection of all revenues and debts due and accruing to the United States.

This officer also has charge of all lands and other property, which have been or shall be assigned, set off or conveyed to the United States, in payment of debts, and of all trusts created for the use of the United States, in payment of debts due to them ; and has power to sell and dispose of lands assigned or set off to the United States in payment of debts, or vested in them by mortgage, or other security, or the payment of debts.

General Land Office Treasury Commissioner.—Prior to the 25th of April, 1812, grants of land were issued by letters patent from the department of state. By an act of that date, a general land office was established, in which all patents for land are now made out and recorded. It is a subordinate branch of the treasury department, with which it is closely connected by the accountability of the receivers of public monies arising from the sale of the national lands.

The Mint.—This establishment is at Philadelphia, where it was fixed in 1752, by an act of congress, for the purpose of a national coinage. It is lawful for any person to carry gold and silver to be coined at the mint, where it is assayed, and coined, if of the standard of the United States. If below the standard, the expense of refining must be deposited. The treasurer is not obliged to receive a less quantity of gold than twenty ounces, nor than two hundred ounces of silver.—(See financial statistics, hereafter, for operations of the mint.) The assayer and refiner and chief coiner, give bonds to the secretary of the treasury.

SALARIES of the Officers of the Treasury Department.

SALARIES. dollars.	SALARIES. dollars.	SALARIES. dollars.
Secretary of state 6,000	Messenger 700	Messenger 700
Chief clerk 2,000	Third auditor 3,000	Assistant Messenger 350
12 clerks—2 at 1600, 6 at 1400, 2 at 1150, and 2 at 1000 15,900	Chief clerk 1,700	
Messenger 700	16 clerks—5 at 1400, 8 at 1150, and 3 at 1000 19,200	SOLICITOR'S OFFICE.
Assistant messenger 350	Messenger 700	Solicitor 3,500
First comptroller 3,500	Assistant messenger 350	3 Clerks—each 1150 4,450
Chief clerk 1,700	Fourth auditor 3,000	Messenger 500
14 clerks—4 at 1400, 5 at 1150, and 5 at 1000 16,350	Chief clerk 1,700	
Messenger 700	13 clerks—2 at 1400, 5 at 1150, and 6 at 1000 14,550	LAND OFFICE.
Assistant messenger 350	Messenger 700	Commissioner-general 3,000
Second comptroller 3,000	Fifth auditor 3,000	Recorder 2,000
Chief clerk 1,700	Chief clerk 1,700	Solicitor 2,000
7 clerks—2 at 1400, 3 at 1150, 1 at 1000, and 1 at 800 8,050	9 Clerks—2 at 1400, 4 at 1150, and 3 at 1000 10,400	3 Clerks—each 1700 5,100
Messenger 700	Messenger 700	16 Clerks—10 at 1150, and 6 at 1000 17,500
First auditor 3,000	Treasurer 3,000	Messenger 700
Chief clerk 1,700	Chief clerk 1,700	
10 clerks—2 at 1400, 6 at 1150, 1 at 1000, and 1 at 800 11,500	4 Clerks—1 at 1400, 1 at 1150, 1 at 1000, and 1 at 800 4,350	THE MINT.—PHILADELPHIA.
Messenger 700	Messenger 700	Director 3,500
Second auditor 3,000	Registrar 3,000	Treasurer 2,000
Chief clerk 1,700	Chief clerk 1,700	Chief coiner 2,000
14 clerks—2 at 1400, 5 at 1150, 6 at 1000, and 1 at 800 15,350	18 Clerks—5 at 1400, 3 at 1150, 8 at 1000, and 2 at 800 20,050	Assayer 2,000
		Melter and refiner 2,000
		Engraver 2,000
		Clerk 1,300
		Assistant assayer 600

BRANCH MINT AT NEW ORLEANS.

Salaries.—Superintendent, 2500 dollars; treasurer, 2000 dollars; assayer, 2000 dollars; melter and refiner, 2000 dollars; coiner, 2000 dollars; 2 clerks, 1200 dollars each.

BRANCH MINT AT DAHLONEGA, GEORGIA.

Salaries.—Superintendent, 2000 dollars; assayer, melter, and refiner, 1500 dollars; coiner, 1500 dollars; clerk, 1500 dollars.

BRANCH MINT AT CHARLOTTE, NORTH CAROLINA.

Salaries.—Superintendent, 2000 dollars; assayer, 1500 dollars; coiner, 1500 dollars.—(See Coinage of the United States hereafter.)

COLLECTORS OF CUSTOMS AT THE DIFFERENT PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

COMPENSATION AS PER BLUE BOOK.

The Officers marked thus * are Surveyors in Ports unprovided with Collectors. Those marked thus † are Officers subordinate to the Collectors of the principal Ports.

MAINE.	Salary in dollars.	CONNECTICUT.	Salary in dollars.
Eastport 1,000.00	Marblehead 232.45	Middletown 831.77	†Portland 250.00
Machias 668.49	Salem & Beverley .. 1,497.90	New London 1,335.65	Sag Harbour 815.92
Frenchman's Bay .. 434.21	Boston & Charles-town 2,200.00	New Haven 587.07	New York 6,000.00
Penobscot 638.60	Plymouth 268.48	Fairfield 394.00	Genesee 1,004.79
Belfast 1,059.31	Fall River 1,341.67		
Waldoboro 712.43	Barnstable 600.38	NEW YORK.	NEW JERSEY.
Wiscasset 1,359.12	New Bedford 1,924.31	Champlain 1,115.78	Perth Amboy 152.13
Bath 1,025.18	Edgartown 250.00	Oswegatchie 1,460.10	Burlington 180.44
Portland 1,812.00	Nantucket 675.00	Cape Vincent 1,014.00	Little Egg Harbour. 300.00
Saco 133.42		Sackett's Harbour .. 717.76	Great Egg Harbour. 420.65
Kennebunk 79.75	RHODE ISLAND.	Oswego 168.64	Bridgetown 250.00
York 254.87	Providence 634.47	Niagara 1,359.19	Newark 250.00
	Bristol and Warren 722.74	†Black Rock 730.00	
NEW HAMPSHIRE.	Newport 554.32	Buffalo Creek 540.00	PENNSYLVANIA.
Portsmouth 468.12		†Black Rock Dam .. 500.00	Philadelphia 1,958.25
	VERMONT.	†Tonawanda 250.00	Presque Isle 399.58
MASSACHUSETTS.	The Collector for the District of Vermont, the only Customs District in the State.	†Cattaraugus Creek 250.00	*Pittsburgh —
Newburyport —		†Dunkirk 250.00	
Ipswich 263.00			DELAWARE.
Gloucester —			Wilmington 593.28

(continued)

MARYLAND.		Salary in dollars.		GEORGIA.		KENTUCKY.	
Salary in dollars.				Salary in dollars.		Salary in dollars.	
Baltimore	1,668.44	East River	222.98	Savannah	2,326.40	* Louisville	485.00
Annapolis	1,263.31	Yorktown	200.00	Hardwick	200.00	OHIO.	
Oxford	250.00	Cherry Stone	—	Sunbury	250.00	Cuyahoga	671.59
Vienna	499.34	* Wheeling	—	Brunswick	498.77	Miami	325.46
Snow Hill	318.90	Norfolk and Ports-		St. Mary's	708.17	* Cincinnati	459.66
St. Mary's	250.00	mouth	1,922.04	ALABAMA.		Sandusky	409.04
* Llewellynburg	201.50	NORTH CAROLINA.		Mobile	3,400.00	MISSOURI.	
* Town	185.00	Camden	250.00	MISSISSIPPI.		* St. Louis	600.00
DISTRICT OF COLUM-		Edenton	268.84	Pearl River	250.00	MICHIGAN.	
BIA.		Plymouth	408.77	Natchez	200.00	Detroit	720.00
Georgetown	565.62	Washington	465.21	Vicksburg	—	Michilimackinac	—
Alexandria	753.12	Newbern	483.54	LOUISIANA.		FLORIDA.	
VIRGINIA.		Ocracoke	1,009.11	New Orleans	4,400.00	Pensacola	2,554.16
Tappahannock	477.68	Beaufort	196.60	Teche	986.33	St. Johns	500.00
Richmond	787.69	Wilmington	338.07	TENNESSEE.		Apalachicola	1,500.00
Petersburg	338.79	SOUTH CAROLINA.		* Nashville	444.00	St. Augustine	602.56
* Yocomico	—	Charleston	1,328.00			St. Marks	758.16
Folly Landing	219.18	Georgetown	652.19			Key West	2,068.73
		Beaufort	—				

WAR DEPARTMENT.

This department formerly embraced the naval as well as military administration of the United States.

They were afterwards separated, and the secretary of war has now the superintendence of erecting forts, topographical surveys, intercourse with the Indians, leasing, exploring, or surveying national mines, and every branch of military affairs; for the administration of which his department has under it the following offices:—

Requisition Bureau.—From this bureau all the requisitions of the war department on the treasury are made out, and salaries and the contingencies of the department are paid.

Pension Office.—The pension office of the war department is a bureau in which all claims for pensions, properly so called, are settled, except such as arise under the laws respecting persons disabled in the navy since 1799. To pay such pensions, a fund has been set apart, from prize money, &c., and the business in relation to those claims is under the control of a board of commissioners appointed for that purpose. Widows of militiamen and volunteers are allowed five years' half-pay in certain cases. Such claims are settled at the treasury department; as are the claims under the act of May 15, 1828, which makes certain allowances to officers who served to the end of the revolutionary war.

Bureau of Indian Affairs.—To this bureau all matters touching Indian relations are referred, and, in subordination to the secretary of war, acted on. The duties are various and multiform, embracing the estimates of the present year for the holding of treaties; together with instructions for the application of the one, and the holding of the other. All accounts for expenditures pass through this bureau, where they are first examined, as to the object and propriety of expenditure, and briefed; hence they pass to the second auditor. The supervision and management of the fund for the civilisation of Indians, and, in general, the correspondence arising out of Indian relations, pass through this bureau.

Bounty-Land Office.—The Bounty-Land Office of the war department is a bureau in which claims for military bounty-lands, originating in the revolutionary and the late war, are examined, and from which military bounty-land warrants issue.

Besides the foregoing, there are also in the war department the following offices, viz: *Adjutant-General's Office; Paymaster-General's Office; Ordnance Department; Topographical Bureau; Subsistence Department; Surgeon-General's Office; Quarter-master-General's Office* and the *Engineer Department.*

SALARIES OF OFFICERS IN THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Secretary of state.....salary 6000	3 Clerks—1 at 1150, 1 at 1000, and	SUBSISTENCE DEPARTMENT.
Chief clerk..... 2000	1 at 800 2950	Brigadier general "
5 Clerks—1 at 1850, 2 at 1400, and	PAYMASTER-GENERAL'S OF-	Major and com. substit. "
2 at 1000 6650	FICE.	3 Clerks—1 at 1350 and 2 at 800.. 2950
Messenger 650	Paymaster-general..... "	SURGEON-GENERAL'S OFFICE.
Assistant messenger 400	Paymaster "	Surgeon-general..... 2500
BOUNTY LANDS.	Chief clerk..... 1700	Surgeon..... "
Principal 1600	2 Clerks—each 1100 2200	Clerk 1150
Clerk 1000	Messenger 700	
INDIAN AFFAIRS.	ORDNANCE DEPARTMENT.	QUARTERMASTER-GENERAL'S
Commissioner 3000	Colonel "	OFFICE.
Chief clerk..... 1600	Captain..... "	B. G. and quartermaster-general "
3 Clerks—1 at 1400, and 2 at 1000 3400	3 Clerks—1 at 1110, 1 at 1000, and	Major and quartermaster "
PENSION OFFICE.	1 at 800 2950	2 Clerks—1 at 1150 and 1 at 900.. 2050
Commissioner..... 2500	TOPOGRAPHICAL BUREAU.	Assistant clerk..... "
Chief clerk 1600	Lieut.-Colonel and topographical	ENGINEER DEPARTMENT.
19 Clerks—4 at 1400, 2 at 1200, 3	engineer "	Chief engineer "
at 1000, 1 at 900, and 9 at 800 19,100	First-Lieut. and assistant ditto.. "	Assistant ditto..... "
ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE.	Clerk 1200	3 Clerks—1 at 1150, 1 at 1000, and
Colonel and adjutant-general... "		1 at 800 2950

The standing army of the United States consists of one regiment of dragoons, one regiment of riflemen, four regiments, or rather companies, of artillery, and eight regiments of infantry.

The regular force, as now authorised by law, consists of 717 commissioned officers, 17 storekeepers, of whom 15 are attached to the ordnance, and two to the purchasing department; 250 enlisted men for the ordnance service, and 7590 non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificers, and privates; 20 chaplains and schoolmasters, and as many ordnance sergeants as there are military posts. Clerks, forage masters, and waggon masters, are also employed in the quartermaster's department, from time to time, according to the exigencies of the service. The act of August 23, 1842, reduced the rank and file of the army 3920 men. The reduction is gradually proceeding, in the manner contemplated by the act, and the excess, according to the last returns, is 1970 men. It is supposed the prescribed minimum will have been reached by the beginning of the year 1844.

From the general returns of the army, it appears that the whole number of troops now in service is 9847, consisting of 781 commissioned officers, 9600 non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificers, and privates, and 247 enlisted men of ordnance.

MILITARY ACADEMY.—This institution is at West Point, pleasantly situated on the west bank of Hudson river, 52 miles above New York. It was established by an act of congress in 1802, on 250 acres of land ceded to the United States by the state of New York, in 1826. "The buildings are two stone barracks, one three and the other four stories high, occupied by 250 cadets, the limited number; a large three-story stone building, 275 feet by 75 feet, for military exercises in winter, and as a depository of the chemical apparatus, models of fortification, &c., and as drawing and recitation rooms; a fine two-story stone building of Gothic architecture, 150 feet by 60 feet, with three towers for astronomical apparatus, the middle tower revolving for an astronomical observatory, a chapel, hospital, mess hall, two cavalry stables, several workshops and store-rooms, and seventeen separate dwellings for the officers of the institution. There are also a magazine, a laboratory, soldiers' barracks, a store, and about twenty-five dwellings for families connected with the establishment, and a total population of 900. Here is a convenient landing, and a large hotel, capable of accommodating 100 visitors. This place was fortified during the revolutionary war, and the remains of Fort Putnam, on Mount Independence, elevated 500 feet above the level of the river, and of Fort Clinton, are still seen. The education given at West Point, both scientific and military, is of a high order, and thirty-four officers and professors are attached to the institution. Near West Point is an academy, kept by J. D. Kinsley, formerly an instructor in the West Point Military Academy, which is flourishing."—*United States Gazetteer*, 1844.

RANK AND CLASSIFICATION OF OFFICERS.	Pay per Month.	Number of rations per day.	Number of Horses allowed.	Number of Servants allowed.
	dollars.			
Major-General	200	15	7	4
Aide-de-Camp, in addition to pay, &c., of Lieutenant	24	1	2	0
Brigadier-General	104	12	5	3
Aide-de-Camp, in addition to pay, &c., of Lieutenant	20	0	2	0
Adjutant-General—Colonel	90	6	5	2
Assistant Adjutant-General—Major	60	4	4	2
Assistant Adjutant-General—Captain	50	4	3	1
Inspector-General—Colonel	90	6	5	2
Quartermaster-General—Brigadier-General	104	12	5	3
Assistant Quartermaster-General—Colonel	90	6	5	2
Deputy Quartermaster-General—Lieutenant-Colonel	75	5	4	2
Quartermaster—Major	60	4	4	2
Assistant Quartermaster—Captain	50	4	3	1
Commissary-General of Subsistence—Colonel	90	6	5	2
Assistant Commissary-General of Subsistence—Lieutenant-Colonel	75	5	4	2
Commissary of Subsistence—Major	60	4	4	2
Commissary of Subsistence—Captain	50	4	3	1
Paymaster-General, 2500 dollars per annum				
Paymaster	60	4	4	2
Surgeon-General, 2500 dollars per annum				
Surgeons of ten years' service	60	8	4	2
Surgeons of less than ten years' service	60	4	4	2
Assistant Surgeons of ten years' service	50	8	3	1
Assistant Surgeons of five years' service	50	4	3	1
Assistant Surgeons of less than five years' service	33 33	4	2	1
OFFICERS OF THE CORPS OF ENGINEERS—CORPS OF TOPOGRAPHICAL ENGINEERS.—ORDNANCE DEPARTMENT.				
Colonel	90	6	5	2
Lieutenant-Colonel	75	5	4	2
Major	60	4	4	2
Captain	50	4	3	1
First Lieutenant	33 33	4	2	1
Second Lieutenant	33 33	4	2	1
OFFICERS OF MOUNTED DRAGOONS.				
Colonel	90	6	5	2
Lieutenant-Colonel	75	5	4	2
Major	60	4	4	2
Captain	50	4	3	1
First Lieutenant	33 33	4	2	1
Second Lieutenant	33 33	4	2	1
OFFICERS OF THE ARTILLERY—INFANTRY.				
Colonel	75	6	4	2
Lieutenant-Colonel	60	5	3	2
Major	50	4	3	2
Captain	40	4	0	1
First Lieutenant	30	4	0	1
Second Lieutenant	25	4	0	1
Adjutant, in addition to pay, &c., of Lieutenant	10	0	2	0

3. MILITARY Departments, Posts, and Arsenals of the United States Army.

POSTS.	State or Territory.	Post Office.	Permanent Commanders.	Regiment and Corps.
MILITARY DEPARTMENT.—No. 1.				
Fort Pickens	Florida	Pensacola	Lieutenant-Colonel.	7th infantry.
Fort McRee				
Fort Morgan	Alabama	Mobile	Captain	do.
Fort Pike	Louisiana	Petite Coquille	Ditto	do.
Fort Wood	Ditto	New Orleans	Brevet Major	do.
New Orleans Barracks	Ditto	Ditto	Brevet B. G.	do.
Baton Rouge Barracks	Ditto	Baton Rouge	Brevet Colonel	riflemen.
Fort Jesup	Ditto	Fort Jesup		do.
No. 2.				
Fort Towson	Arkansas Territory	Fort Towson	Lieutenant-Colonel.	6th infantry.
Fort Washita	Ditto		Major	riflemen.
Fort Gibson	Ditto	Fort Gibson	Colonel	6th infantry.
Fort Smith	Ditto	Fort Smith	Major	do.
No. 3.				
Fort Scott	Missouri Territory	Little Osage Post Office.	Brevet Major	4th infantry.
Fort Leavenworth	Ditto	Fort Leavenworth	Lieutenant-Colonel.	dragoons.
Fort Croghan	Ditto		Captain	do.
Jefferson Barracks	Missouri	Jefferson Barracks	Colonel	4th infantry.
Sac and Fox Agency	Iowa Territory	Fairfield	Captain	dragoons.
Fort Atkinson	Ditto	Prairie du Chien	Ditto	do.
Fort Crawford	Wisconsin Territory	Ditto	Lieutenant-Colonel.	1st infantry.

(continued)

POSTS.	State or Territory.	Post Office.	Permanent Commanders.	Regiment and Corps.
MILITARY DEPARTMENT.—No. 3.				
Fort Snelling.....	Iowa Territory.....	Fort Snelling.....	Major.....	1st infantry.
No. 4.				
Fort Winnebago.....	Wisconsin Territory....	Fort Winnebago.....	Captain.....	do.
Fort Brady.....	Michigan.....	Sault St. Marie.....	Ditto.....	5th do.
Fort Mackmac.....	Ditto.....	Michillimackinac.....	Ditto.....	do.
Fort Gratiot.....	Ditto.....	Fort Gratiot.....	Lieutenant-Colonel..	do.
Detroit Barracks.....	Ditto.....	Detroit.....	Brevet.....	do.
Detroit Arsenal.....	Ditto.....	Dearbornville.....	Captain.....	do.
No. 5.				
Buffalo Barracks.....	New York.....	Buffalo.....	Lieutenant Colonel..	2d infantry.
Fort Niagara.....	Ditto.....	Youngstown.....	Captain.....	do.
Fort Ontario.....	Ditto.....	Oswego.....	Ditto.....	do.
Madison Barracks.....	Ditto.....	Sacket's Harbour.....	Major.....	do.
Plattsburg Barracks.....	Ditto.....	Plattsburg.....	Captain.....	do.
Fort Adams.....	Rhode Island.....	Newport.....	Brevet Colonel.....	2d artillery.
Fort Walcott.....				
Fort Trumbull.....	Connecticut.....	New London.....	Captain.....	do.
West Point.....	New York.....	West Point.....	Major.....	Engineers.
Fort Columbus.....	New York Harbour, N. Y.....	New York.....	Colonel.....	2d artillery.
Fort Hamilton.....		Fort Hamilton.....		
Fort La Fayette.....	Pennsylvania.....	Ditto.....		do.
Fort Mifflin.....		Philadelphia.....	Captain.....	
Carlisle Barracks.....	Ditto.....	Carlisle.....	Ditto.....	4th do.
No. 6.				
Fort Kent.....	Maine.....	Houlton.....	Ditto.....	1st do.
Fort Fairfield.....	Ditto.....	Ditto.....	Ditto.....	do.
Hancock Barracks.....	Ditto.....	Ditto.....	Lieutenant-Colonel..	do.
Fort Sullivan.....	Ditto.....	Eastport.....	Captain.....	do.
Fort Preble.....	Ditto.....	Portland.....	Ditto.....	do.
Fort Constitution.....	New Hampshire.....	Portsmouth.....	Brevet Major.....	do.
Fort Independence.....	Massachusetts.....	Boston.....	Not garrisoned.....	
No. 7.				
Fort McHenry.....	Maryland.....	Baltimore.....	Lieutenant-Colonel..	4th do.
Fort Severn.....	Ditto.....	Annapolis.....	Brevet Major.....	do.
Fort Monroe.....	Virginia.....	Old Point Comfort.....	Colonel.....	do.
No. 8.				
Fort Johnston.....	North Carolina.....	Smithville.....	} Brev. Lt. Colonel..	3d do.
Fort Caswell.....		Ditto.....		
Fort Macon.....	Ditto.....	Beaufort.....	Brevet Major.....	do.
Fort Moultrie.....	Charleston Harbour, S. C.....	} Charleston.....	Bt. Brig. General..	do.
Castle Pinckney.....				
Ogelthorpe Barracks.....	Georgia.....	Savannah.....	Lieutenant Colonel..	do.
No. 9.				
Fort Marion.....	Florida.....	St. Augustine.....		do.
Fort King.....	Ditto.....	Seminole Agency.....	Captain.....	7th infantry
Fort Brooke.....	Ditto.....	Tampa Bay.....	Major.....	7th do.

GENERAL Abstract of the Militia Force of the United States, as stated in the Army Register for 1843.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	General Officers.	General Staff Officers.	Field Officers, &c.	Company Officers.	Total Commissioned Officers.	Non-commissioned Officers, Musicians, and Privates.	Aggregate.
Maine.....	27	89	567	1,846	2,529	42,823	45,352
New Hampshire.....	9	30	337	1,289	1,665	30,806	32,471
Massachusetts.....	9	30	98	416	553	86,662	87,215
Vermont.....	13	40	215	905	1,173	26,363	27,536
Rhode Island.....	5	35	99	276	415	14,540	14,955
Connecticut.....	9	30	311	1,059	1,409	45,061	46,470
New York.....	135	863	2,490	6,576	10,164	170,915	181,079
New Jersey.....	19	58	435	1,476	1,988	37,183	39,171
Pennsylvania.....	55	183	946	4,070	5,254	246,703	251,957
Delaware.....	4	8	71	363	447	8,782	9,229
Maryland.....	22	68	544	1,763	2,397	44,467	46,864
Virginia.....	28	61	1,261	4,740	6,090	105,898	111,988
North Carolina.....	28	67	723	2,969	3,787	61,431	65,218
South Carolina.....	20	134	436	1,897	2,487	49,079	51,566
Georgia.....	36	98	746	2,212	3,092	54,220	57,312
Alabama.....	31	187	564	1,382	2,164	42,168	44,332
Louisiana.....	10	46	183	542	781	14,027	14,808
Mississippi.....	15	70	392	348	825	35,259	36,084
Tennessee.....	25	79	859	2,644	3,607	67,645	71,252
Kentucky.....	43	150	1,046	3,625	4,864	72,412	77,276
Ohio.....							180,258
Indiana.....	31	110	566	2,154	2,861	51,052	53,913
Illinois.....							83,234
Missouri.....	45	213	658	1,692	2,608	57,081	59,689
Arkansas.....					157	1,871	2,028
Michigan.....	6	11	97	466	580	12,206	12,786
Florida Territory.....		1	9	33	43	784	827
Wisconsin Territory.....	1	6	36	126	169	5,054	5,223
Iowa Territory.....							
D. Columbia.....	1	3	24	68	96	1,153	1,249
	627	2670	13,813	44,938	62,205	1,385,645	1,711,342

NAVY DEPARTMENT.

The office of the Secretary of the Navy was created by an act of congress of the 30th of April, 1798. The secretary issues all orders to the navy of the United States, and superintends the concerns of the navy establishment generally.

A Board of Navy Commissioners was established by an act of congress of the 7th of February, 1815. This board is attached to the office of the secretary of the navy, is under his superintendence, and discharges all the ministerial duties of that office relative to the purchase of naval stores and materials, and the construction, armament, equipment, and employment of vessels of war, as well as other matters connected with the navy. Its records and accounts are on all occasions subject to the inspection of the President of the United States and the secretary of the navy.

The following list of Officers was corrected at the Navy Department, July 19th, 1843.

	Salary. dollars.		Salary. dollars.
Secretary	6000	Assistant	
Chief Clerk	2000	Clerk	1200
Principal Corresponding Clerk	1500	NAVY STOREKEEPERS.—9.	
Registering Clerk	1400	Portsmouth, N. H.	1400
Warrant Clerk	1200	Boston	1700
BUREAU OF YARDS AND DOCKS.		New York	1700
Chief	3500	Philadelphia	1250
Chief Clerk	1400	Washington	1700
Civil Engineer	2000	Norfolk	1700
Draughtsman	1000	Pensacola	1700
BUREAU OF ORDINANCE AND HYDROGRAPHY.		Port Mahon	1500
Chief	3500	Rio Janeiro	1500
Clerk	1200	NAVAL CONSTRUCTORS' DEPARTMENT.	
Draughtsman	1000	<i>Chief Naval Constructor.</i>	
BUREAU OF CONSTRUCTION, EQUIPMENT, AND REPAIRS.		Washington	3000
Chief	3000	<i>Naval Constructors.—7.</i>	
Chief Clerk	1400	Portsmouth, N. H.	2300
Draughtsman	1000	Boston	2300
BUREAU OF PROVISIONS AND CLOTHING.		Erie, Pennsylvania	2300
Chief	3000	Philadelphia	2300
Chief Clerk	1400	New York	2300
BUREAU OF MEDICINE AND SURGERY.		Norfolk	2300
Chief	2500	Pensacola	2300

The salary of the *principal* surveyor of the coasts is 6000 dollars. He has twelve assistants: two at a salary each of 4000 dollars, two at 3000 dollars, three at 2000 dollars, three at 1500 dollars, one at 1250 dollars, and one at 1000 dollars. The highest rank is commander of a naval station, with the pay of senior captain. The stations are, the *Home Coast of Brazil, Mediterranean, Pacific, East Indies, and Coast of Africa.*

The naval yards for building ships of war are at Portsmouth, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Erie, Washington, Norfolk, and Pensacola

SALARIES of the Naval Officers—1844.

CAPTAINS—67.		SURGEONS—69.	
Pay per annum in dollars.		Pay per annum in dollars.	
Senior Captain, in service	4500	Surgeons, first 5 years after date of commission ..	1000
Ditto, on leave, &c.	3500	Ditto, ditto, at navy yards, &c.	1250
Captains of Squadrons	4000	Ditto, ditto, in sea service	1333.33½
Ditto on other duty	3500	Ditto, ditto, of the fleet	1500
Ditto off duty	2500	Ditto, second 5 years	1200
COMMANDERS—94.		Ditto, ditto, at navy yards, &c.	1500
Commanders in sea service	2500	Ditto, ditto, in sea service	1600
Ditto at navy yards or on other duty	2100	Ditto, ditto, of the fleet	1800
Ditto on leave, &c.	1800	Ditto, third 5 years	1400
LIEUTENANTS—324.		Ditto, ditto, at navy yards	1750
Lieutenants, commanding	1800	Ditto, ditto, in sea service	1866.66½
Ditto on other duty	1500	Ditto, ditto, of the fleet	2100
Ditto waiting orders	1200	Ditto, fourth 5 years	1600
		Ditto, ditto, at navy yards, &c.	2000
		Ditto, ditto, in sea service	2133.33½

(continued)

PROGRESS OF AMERICA.

Surgeons of the fleet.....	Pay per annum in dollars.
Ditto, twenty years and upwards	2400
Ditto, ditto, at navy yards, &c.	1800
Ditto, ditto, in sea service	2250
Ditto, ditto, of the fleet	2400
	2700

PASSED ASSISTANT SURGEONS—9. ASSISTANT SURGEONS—60.

Assistant Surgeons waiting orders.....	650
Ditto, ditto, at sea	950
Ditto, ditto, after passing, &c.	850
Ditto, ditto, at sea, after passing	1200
Ditto, ditto, at navy yards, &c.	950
Ditto, ditto, at navy yards, after passing.....	1150

PURSERS—64.

Pursers, of ships of the line	3500
Ditto of frigates or razees	3000
Pursers of sloops or steamers of 1st class.....	2000
Ditto of brigs, and schooners, and steamers, less than 1st class	1500
Ditto of navy yards Boston, New York, Norfolk, and Pensacola.....	2500
Ditto of navy yards, Portsmouth, Philadelphia, and Washington.....	2000
Ditto of naval stations within the United States ..	1500
Ditto of receiving ships at Boston, New York, and Norfolk.....	2500
Ditto of other places.....	1500
Ditto on leave, and waiting orders, the same pay as Surgeons.	

CHAPLAINS—22.

Chaplains, in sea service.....	1200
Ditto, ditto, on leave, &c.....	800

PASSED MIDSHIPMEN—133.

Passed Midshipmen, on duty.....	Pay per annum in dollars.
Ditto, ditto, waiting orders.....	750
	600

MIDSHIPMEN—410.

Midshipmen in sea service	400
Ditto on other duty.....	350
Ditto on leave, &c.....	300

MASTERS—31.

Masters of a ship of the line at sea.....	1100
Ditto on other duty.....	1000
Ditto on leave.....	750

MASTER'S MATES, (warranted)—7.

Master's mates, on duty.....	450
Ditto, on leave, &c.....	300

PROFESSORS OF MATHEMATICS AND TEACHERS AT NAVAL SCHOOLS, &c.

Professors of mathematics, on duty, 23	1200
Teachers at Naval Schools, 3	480*
Boatswains ..37 } of a ship of the line	750
Gunners.....40 } of a frigate.....	600
Carpenters.. 38 } on other duty.....	500
Sailmakers .. 35 } on leave, &c.....	360

MARINE CORPS.

Colonel Commandant, 1, 75 dollars per month, 12 rations per day (20 cents each.)	
Lieutenant Colonel, 1, 60 ditto, 5 ditto, ditto.	
Majors, 4, 50 ditto, 4 ditto, ditto.	

* Teachers receive, in addition, two rations per day, at 20 cents each.

VESSELS OF WAR OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY IN 1844..

Name and Rate.	Where and when built.	Where employed.	Name and Rate.	When and where built.	Where employed.
Ships of the Line.—11.			Guns.		
Franklin	Philadelphia ..1815	Under repairs, Bost.	Levant.....	New York	Pacific Ocean.
Columbus	Washington ..1819	Mediterranean.	Saratoga	Portsmouth	Coast of Africa.
Ohio	New York	Recg. Ship, Boston.	Ontario	Baltimore	Recg. Ship, N. Orl.
North Carolina	Philadelphia ..1820	Recg. Ship, N. York	Marion	Boston	In ord., Boston.
Delaware	Gosport, Va. ..1820	Mediterranean	Decatur	New York	Coast of Africa.
Alabama		On stocks, Portsm.	Preble	Portsmouth	Mediterranean.
Vermont		Ditto, Boston	Yorktown	Norfolk	Pacific Ocean.
Virginia		Ditto, ditto	Dale	Philadelphia ..1839	Ditto, ditto.
Pennsylvania	Philadelphia ..1837	Recg. Ship, Norfolk	Brigs.—8.		
New York		On stocks, ditto	Dolphin	New York	Home Squadron.
Washington		Ditto, Washington	Porpoise	Boston	Coast of Africa.
Frigates, 1st Class.—14.			Pioneer	Ditto.....1836	Recg. vessel, Baltic.
Independence, <i>Razee</i> 54	Boston	Home squadron.	Consort	Ditto.....1836	In ord., Boston.
United States	Philadelphia ..1797	Pacific Ocean.	Bainbridge	Ditto.....1842	Home Squadron.
Constitution	Boston	In ord., Norfolk.	Perry	Norfolk	Preparing for sea.
Potomac	Washington ..1821	Boston.	Somers	New York.....1842	Home Squadron.
Brandywine	Ditto.....1825	East Indies.	Truxton.....	Norfolk	Special Service.
Hudson	Purchased	In ord., New York.	Schooners.—9.		
Santee		On stocks, Portsm.	Grampus.....	Washington	Home Squadron.
Cumberland.....	Boston	In ord., Boston.	Shark	Ditto.....1821	Pacific Ocean.
Sabine		On stocks, N. York.	Enterprise	New York	Coast of Brazil.
Savannah		Ditto, ditto.	Boxer	Boston	West Indies.
Raritan	Washington ..1836	Philadelphia.	Experiment.....	Washington	Recg. vessel, Phila.
Columbia	Portsmouth	Coast of Brazil.	Flirt	Transferred from	Packet service.
St. Lawrence.....		On stocks, Norfolk.	Wave	War department.	Rec. ves. Charleston
Congress	Portsmouth ..1841	Mediterranean.	Phoenix	Purchased	Norfolk.
Frigates, 2d Class.—2.			On-ka-hy-e	Ditto.	
Constellation	Baltimore	East Indies.	Steamers.—6.		
Macedonian	Norfolk, rebuilt 1836	Coast of Africa.	Fulton	New York.....1837	In ord., New York.
Sloops of War.—17.			Poinsett.....	Trans. War dep.	Surveying.
John Adams.....	Norfolk, rebuilt 1820	Coast of Brazil.	Mississippi	Philadelphia ..1841	In ord., Boston.
Boston	Boston	Boston.	Missouri	New York.....1841	Home Squadron.
Vincennes.....	New York	Home Squadron.	Union	Norfolk	Coast service.
Warren	Boston	Norfolk.	Princeton	Philadelphia ..1843	In ord., Philadel.
Falmouth	Ditto.....1826	Home Squadron.	Store Ships.—3.		
Fairfield	New York	Mediterranean.	Relief	Philadelphia ..1836	Pacific Ocean.
Vandalia	Philadelphia ..1828	Home Squadron.	Erie	Baltimore	Ditto, ditto.
St. Louis	Washington ..1828	East Indies.	Lexington.....	New York	Mediterranean.
Cyane	Boston	Pacific Ocean.			

POST-OFFICE.

This department is under the superintendence of a postmaster-general, who has three assistants. The postmaster-general has the sole appointment of all the postmasters throughout the United States, the making of all contracts for carrying the mails, and the direction of every thing relating to the department.

The revenue arising from the general post-office has been principally expended upon the extension and improvement of the establishment, by which means the regular conveyance, by mail, of letters, newspapers, pamphlets, &c., has been extended to the inhabitants of every part of the Union, even to the remotest territorial settlements.

This establishment is remarkably well and cheaply administered, considering the inconvenience of the bad roads in the remote districts, and the vast extent of national territory. The following scale of postages under the new law of 1845, is also very moderate.

	cents.
For a letter, not exceeding half an ounce in weight (avoirdupois), sent not exceeding 300 miles	5
Sent over 300 miles	10
For every half-ounce, and <i>any</i> excess over every half-ounce, the same rates of postage; and when advertised, two cents on each letter; or <i>four</i> cents, if the advertising cost so much, additional.	
For drop letters (not to be mailed), each	2
For any printed circular, handbill, or advertisement, on quarto post, single cap, or paper not larger than single cap, unsealed, sent any distance	2
For any pamphlet, magazine, periodical, or other matter of every kind, that is transmittable by mail, and has no written communication on it, of one ounce or less, or for a newspaper exceeding 1900 square inches of surface	2½
For each additional ounce, or an excess greater than half an ounce	1
Newspapers of 1900 square inches or less, sent by editors or publishers, from their offices of publication, any distance not exceeding thirty miles	free.
For any other newspaper sent over thirty, and not more than 100 miles, or any distance within the same state	1
Sent over such distance	1½

Where the circular is on a sheet larger than single cap, it is to be rated as a pamphlet. As the postage on these articles is chargeable on each *copy*, postmasters will carefully examine all packets, and rate the postage accordingly. When the article to be mailed is a circular, pamphlet, or newspaper, it should be so enveloped, or folded, that it can be distinctly seen at the office to be such, and also that it contain no writing, marks, or signs, to serve the purpose of written communications. If not done up so as to open at the end, it is to be charged as a letter, by weight.

No packet can be mailed which weighs more than three pounds. Bound books of any size are not included in the term "mailable matter," except books sent by governors of states.

The establishment of private expresses for the conveyance of any letters, packets, or packages of letters, or other matter transmittable in the United States mail (newspapers, pamphlets, magazines, and periodicals excepted), from one city, town, or other place, to any other city, town, or place in the United States, between which the United States mail is regularly transported, is prohibited.

1. The President, ex-Presidents, and Mrs. Madison, and Mrs. Harrison, retain the franking privilege, as regulated by former laws.

2. The Vice-President, members of Congress, and delegates from territories

May transmit *public documents* free during their *official terms*;

May *send* and *receive free*, newspapers, letters, or packets, weighing under two ounces, during the session of Congress, and for thirty days before the commencement and thirty days after the close of any session;

May *receive* letters free, not weighing over two ounces, during the *recess*. This does not include the interval from the close of one Congress to the commencement of the next;

May transmit free *written letters from themselves the whole year*—that is, from sixty days before the commencement of any session, until the meeting of the next Congress.

3. The Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House of Representatives

May *send free* public documents during their official terms;

May *send* and *receive free* letters, newspapers, and packages, not weighing over two ounces, during the session of Congress, and for thirty days before and after;

May *send free letters written by themselves* during their official terms.

4. The Governors of States may send free the laws, records, and documents of the legislature, to the governors of other states.

5. The three Assistant Postmasters-general.

May *send free* letters, packages, or other matters, relating exclusively to their official duties, or the business of the post-office department ;

May *receive* all such letters and documents as relate to their own duties, or that of the department, and have the postages remitted at the city post-office.

6. Deputy postmasters may *send free* all such letters and packages as may relate exclusively to the business of their respective offices, and may have allowed all postage paid or charged to them in the settlement of their accounts.

7. Exchange newspapers between editors pass free.

8. Editors or publishers of newspapers may send their papers free within thirty miles of the place of publication.

9. Communications addressed to the officers of the government, heretofore having the franking privilege, touching the business of their respective offices, are to be paid for out of the contingent fund provided for their offices, or out of the treasury.

The following Salaries of Officers as corrected at the Post Office Department, July 20th, 1843.

	Salary in Dollars.
Postmaster-General.....	6000
Assistant Postmaster-General	2500
Ditto ditto	2500
Ditto ditto	2500
Chief Clerk	2000

The other clerks have salaries varying from 250 dollars to 1800 dollars per annum ; and the postmasters in the various state, county, and town post-offices, are allowed compensations of from 500 to 2000 dollars per annum.

The establishment of the post-office by the federal government was never with the view of deriving revenue from it as a trade, by giving the government a monopoly of that trade. The object was only to do that by government agency, which, although indispensable for public convenience and the transaction of business, public and private, was, in that early period of the government, beyond the means of individuals, or associations of individuals. The following is a table of the leading features of the department from the commencement of the government :

POST OFFICE Establishment of the United States—1790 to 1845.

Y E A R S.	Number of Offices.	Miles of Post-roads.	Receipts.	Expense.	Compensa- tion of Post- masters.	Transporta- tion of the Mail.
			dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
1790	75	1,875	37,935	32,140	8,198	22,081
1791	89	1,905	46,294	36,697		
1792	195	5,642	67,444	54,531		
1793	209	5,642	104,747	72,040		
1794	450	11,984	128,947	89,973		
1795	453	13,207	160,620	117,893	30,272	75,359
1796	468	13,207	195,067	131,572		
1797	554	16,180	213,908	150,114		
1798	639	16,180	232,977	179,084		
1799	677	16,180	261,846	188,038		
1800	903	20,817	280,804	213,994	69,243	128,644
1801	1,025	22,309	320,443	255,151		
1802	1,114	25,315	327,045	281,916		
1803	1,258	25,315	351,823	322,364		
1804	1,405	29,556	389,450	337,502		
1805	1,558	31,076	421,373	377,367	111,552	239,635
1806	1,710	33,431	446,106	413,573		
1807	1,848	33,431	478,763	453,885		
1808	1,944	33,755	460,564	462,828		
1809	2,012	34,035	506,634	498,012		
1810	2,300	34,035	551,684	495,969	149,438	327,966
1811	2,403	36,406	587,247	499,099		
1812	2,610	36,406	549,208	540,165		
1813	2,708	29,378	703,155	681,012		
1814	2,901	39,540	730,370	727,126		
1815	3,000	41,736	1,043,065	748,121	241,901	487,779
1816	3,260	43,748	961,782	804,422	265,944	521,970
1817	3,459	48,673	1,002,973	916,515	303,916	589,189
1818	3,618	52,089	1,130,235	1,035,822	346,429	664,611
1819	4,000	59,473	1,204,737	1,117,861	375,828	717,881
1820	4,500	67,586	1,111,927	1,160,926	352,295	782,425
1821	4,650	72,492	1,059,087	1,184,283	337,599	815,681
1822	4,799	78,808	1,117,490	1,167,572	355,299	788,618
1823	5,043	82,763	1,130,115	1,156,993	360,462	767,464
1824	5,182	84,860	1,197,758	1,188,019	383,804	768,939
1825	5,677	84,860	1,306,525	1,229,043	411,183	785,646
1826	6,150	94,052	1,447,703	1,366,712	447,727	885,100
1827	7,003	105,336	1,524,633	1,468,959	486,411	942,345
1828	7,651	114,526	1,664,759	1,691,044	548,049	1,086,313
1829	8,050	114,780	1,773,990	1,879,307	559,237	1,153,646

Post Office Establishment of the United States—1790 to 1845—(continued).

Y E A R S.	Number of Offices.	Miles of Post-roads.	Receipts.	Expense.	Compensa- tion of Post- masters.	Transporta- tion of the Mails.
			dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
1830	8,450	115,176	1,959,109	1,919,300	595,234	1,274,009
1831	8,730	115,176	1,997,811	1,936,222	635,028	1,252,226
1832	8,830	115,200	2,258,570	2,266,171	715,481	1,482,507
1833	9,170	118,130	2,617,011	2,930,414	826,283	1,894,638
1834	9,200	112,224	2,823,749	2,910,605	897,317	1,925,544
1835	10,730	108,324	2,963,556	2,757,350	945,418	1,719,007
1836	10,770	105,674	3,408,323	2,841,766	812,803	1,638,052
1837	12,099	142,877	4,100,605	3,303,428	891,352	1,996,727
1838	12,519	134,818	4,235,077	4,621,836	933,948	3,131,308
1839	12,680	133,999	4,477,614	4,654,718	980,000	3,285,622
1840	13,468	155,739	4,539,265	4,759,110	1,028,925	3,296,876
1841	13,682	155,026	4,379,317	4,567,228	1,018,645	3,159,375
1842	13,733	149,732	4,546,246	4,627,716	1,147,256	3,087,796
1843	13,814	142,295	4,295,925	4,374,713	1,426,394	2,947,319
1844	14,103	144,687	4,237,285	4,297,867	1,358,316	2,938,551
1845	14,183	143,940	4,289,842	4,320,732	1,409,875	2,905,504

N.B.—The preceding statistics all relate to the Post-Office operations under the *old law*; the *new law* went into operation July 1st, 1845.

TABLE of Mail Service for the Year preceding the 1st of July, 1842 and 1845.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Length of Routes.	Annual Transportation.			Total Transporta- tion.	Total Cost.
		Horse and Sulky.	Stage and Coach.	Railroad and Steamboat.		
	miles.	miles.	miles.	miles.	miles.	dollars.
Maine.....	3,904	280,132	739,300		1,019,432	69,913
N. Hampshire.....	2,857	121,712	570,164		691,876	47,040
Vermont.....	2,405	128,020	614,174		742,194	49,671
Massachusetts.....	3,510	143,924	966,087	491,628	1,601,639	135,754
Rhode Island	338	15,444	66,456	29,952	111,852	9,615
Connecticut.....	2,053	120,778	463,280	232,860	816,918	57,656
New York	13,119	895,413	3,004,935	861,420	4,761,758	349,246
New Jersey.....	2,021	135,534	368,494	100,424	664,452	52,798
Pennsylvania	10,870	943,106	1,890,934	285,653	3,119,693	226,102
Delaware	423	34,840	83,405	20,003	138,248	15,045
Maryland.....	2,345	239,702	266,654	260,401	766,757	116,157
Virginia	11,727	1,069,180	929,054	365,748	2,363,982	182,908
N. Carolina	7,486	572,426	692,826	274,560	1,539,812	140,502
S. Carolina.....	4,659	292,257	521,625	204,568	1,018,452	133,915
Georgia	6,621	454,906	808,647	198,268	1,461,821	171,865
Florida	1,744	94,014	79,576	99,424	273,012	44,909
Ohio.....	11,580	922,897	1,712,013	103,308	2,738,218	182,655
Michigan.....	3,509	318,854	287,608	95,368	701,830	42,805
Indiana.....	7,556	609,842	681,694	49,842	1,341,378	97,708
Illinois.....	9,560	533,203	1,067,456	72,644	1,673,303	156,915
Wisconsin.....	1,713	143,628	58,592		202,220	18,402
Iowa.....	1,052	101,968	34,720		133,688	12,133
Missouri.....	5,930	494,256	276,080	11,744	782,080	68,819
Kentucky	6,461	544,174	726,316	130,250	1,400,740	103,802
Tennessee	7,852	613,760	756,402	31,009	1,401,171	106,411
Alabama	7,909	582,073	689,416	106,184	1,377,673	211,998
Mississippi.....	4,850	551,994	260,832	112,735	925,561	121,577
Arkansas	3,641	403,624	140,192	61,048	604,864	82,779
Louisiana	2,507	283,032	13,104	165,221	461,357	78,696
Total, 1842.....	149,732	11,644,693	18,767,036	4,424,262	34,835,991	3,087,796
Cost in dollars, 1842		737,605	1,700,510	649,581	3,087,796	
Total, 1845	143,940	11,225,631	17,924,046	6,484,592	35,634,269	2,867,991
Cost in dollars, 1845.....	..	548,482	1,476,079	843,430		

	dollars.	cts.
Receipts for the year 1845	4,289,841	80
Expenditures for the year	4,320,731	99
The net revenue deducting the commissions of postmasters, &c.	2,942,217	27
The pay of postmasters for the year was	1,409,875	18

Extract from the Report of the Postmaster-General, dated December 3rd, 1842.

"A public service which requires the agency of 13,733 postmasters and their clerks, 2343 contractors and their agents, covering, during the year, 34,835,991 miles of transportation, and extending almost to the door of every citizen, must encounter difficulties, and be subjected to occasional irregularities, not only from the neglect of some of its numerous agents but from physical causes, not in the power of this Department to overcome.

"The whole number of free letters sent through the post office annually, so far as the returns of postmasters exhibit, is about 3,000,000.

"While the government is charged exorbitant rates for the transportation of the mails, individuals have great facilities for the conveyance of letters out of the mails. *This, like all smuggling, will be carried on whenever the government charge is so high as to afford a premium for so doing.* On all the railroad and steamboat routes, not only is a large proportion of letters sent by private hands, but regularly established private expresses or "common carriers" are established, which transport, according to the authority of the secretary of the treasury, one-third of all the letters between New York and Boston. These expresses have become very important, and are constantly increasing. The first established was that of Harnden and Co., about the year 1835. He commenced as a package express, without any reference to letters, simply to carry small packages between New York and Boston, and deliver them promptly on arrival. Gradually he acted as a kind of commission merchant, being deputed to buy the goods he was to bring back with him. The great convenience of this express, and the high confidence reposed in Mr. Harnden by the mercantile community, made his business grow with great rapidity, and he soon made arrangements with the railroads and steamboats, by which his business was conducted on a more permanent basis, mutually beneficial. On the establishment of Cunard's line of steamboats to Boston, Mr. Harnden was applied to, to undertake the freight-agency of the line, which he accepted, and to carry it out, established a branch in Liverpool. Being thus situated, with expresses running through all the principal cities concentrating in Boston, and communicating with his branch in Liverpool through the government steamers, it became obvious that a safe, cheap, and prompt channel, for foreign letters to their destination, was formed through his arrangements, and he was importuned to undertake the business. Under these circumstances, Mr. Harnden made arrangements with the post-office department, by which he was appointed a mail carrier. Thus empowered, he received foreign letters, took them to the post-office, paid the postage to the government, put them in a separate mail-bag, with a separate way-bill, and delivered them promptly and regularly. An important object was thus effected. The department got its postage, and the merchants were assured of the prompt delivery of their letters; efficacy was given by individual enterprize to an important branch of the mail service, but still hampered by the government restrictions. Its usefulness was, however, carried out still further. The correspondence between this country and Europe is immense; far greater than between any country of Europe and the remaining portions of it. This arises, in part, from the immense number of immigrants which has been pouring in for half a century, leaving friends and relations behind them. These latter are mostly in poor circumstances, and those here, in writing home, wish to remit money in small amounts, and pay postage in advance. This never could be done until the establishment of Harnden's agency, by which a person in any of the Atlantic cities may remit funds in small amounts, and pay postage to any place in Great Britain or Europe. The letter and money may be paid to Harnden's agent, and thence go free to its destination. For these purposes Mr. Harnden remits by each packet from 20,000 dollars to 30,000 dollars to his agent. Here is an establishment for public convenience constantly increasing in importance, and is checked in its advance only by the government monopoly of the post-office, which operates as a heavy tax upon the business of Mr. Harnden. The ramifications of that business afford the means of destroying the post-office ultimately altogether. The success of Harnden has induced the establishment of numerous other lines, of which there are twenty different ones running into Boston alone, and numerous others stretching as far west as Buffalo; although none of these are so extensive as Harnden's, they run upon all the routes between points which have the greatest business connexion. Hence all those merchants and others whose business lies in the same direction, make up their letters into packages, which are conveyed upon their lines for 50 cents, and have been known to contain letters on which the postage would have been from 20 dollars to 30 dollars. Most of the hotels have boxes to collect letters for their customers, and in merchants' stores packages are made up alternately. Thus, even without the knowledge of the carriers, immense quantities of letters are conveyed by these means without cost of postage; on one occasion a merchant sent from New York to Philadelphia 45,000 dollars in bills, enclosed in two pattern cards. The transaction was made public through the ignorance of the recipient of the package of its contents, until an outcry about the supposed loss of the money brought it to light. Independent of these common carriers, there are on the principal routes, employed by banks and brokers, special carriers, who bear mostly letters and money packages. The extent of this business is manifest in the fact, that two, employed between New York and Philadelphia, pay each to the railroads, for their fares alone, 1200 dollars per annum. These are the means by which letters are carried without the connivance of the agent. But by far the greater quantity is carried with their knowledge: for instance, on one occasion, Mr. Harnden stated that between Boston and New York he paid the department 600 dollars per month for a year, making 7200 dollars. Other lines, which convey nearly as many, did not pay one dollar. Under the operation of all these causes, the revenue of the office at Boston is fast decreasing, and the same influences are rapidly producing the same results at other points.

"The great success of these undertakings is the surest indication that they 'go with the peo-

ple;' that they supply a want which the government arrangements do not supply. General Jackson, in his first annual message, describes the post-office department as being 'to the body politic what the veins and arteries are to the natural—conveying rapidly and regularly, to the remotest parts of the system, correct information of the operations of the government, and bringing back to it the wishes and feelings of the people. Through its agency, we have secured to ourselves the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free press.' "

THE UNITED STATES TARIFF OF 1846.

An Act reducing the Duty on Imports, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That from and after the 1st day of December next, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on the goods, wares, and merchandise herein enumerated and provided for, imported from foreign countries, the following rates of duty : that is to say—

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule A, a duty of 100 per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule B, a duty of forty per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule C, a duty of thirty per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule D, a duty of twenty-five per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule E, a duty of twenty per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule F, a duty of fifteen per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule G, a duty of ten per cent ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule H, a duty of five per cent ad valorem.

Sec. 2. And be it further enacted, That, from and after the first day of December next, the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule I, shall be exempt from duty.

Sec. 3. And be it further enacted, That, from and after the first day of December next, there shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise imported from foreign countries, and not specially provided for in this act, a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 4. And be it further enacted, That, in all cases in which the invoice or entry shall not contain the weight, or quantity, or measure of goods, wares, or merchandise now weighed, or measured, or gauged, the same shall be weighed, gauged, or measured at the expense of the owner, agent, or consignee.

Sec. 5. And be it further enacted, That, from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the bounty heretofore authorised by law to be paid on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, there shall be allowed, on the exportation thereof, if cured with foreign salt, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on the salt, and no more ; to be ascertained under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 6. And be it further enacted, That all goods, wares, and merchandise imported after the passage of this act, and which may be in the public stores on the second day of December next, shall be subject to no other duty upon the entry thereof than if the same were imported respectively after that day.

Sec. 7. And be it further enacted, That, the twelfth section of the act entitled "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports and for other purposes," approved August 30, 1842, shall be, and the same is hereby so far modified, that all goods imported from this side of the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores for the space of one year, instead of the term of sixty days, prescribed in the said section ; and that all goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain the public stores one year, instead of the term of ninety days, prescribed in the said section.

Sec. 8. And be it further enacted, That it shall be lawful for the owner, consignee, or agent of imports which have been actually purchased, on entry of the same, to make such addition in the entry, to the cost or value given in the invoice, as, in his opinion, may raise the same to the

true market-value of such imports in the principal markets of the country whence the importation shall have been made, or in which the goods imported shall have been originally manufactured or produced, as the case may be; and to add thereto all costs and charges which, under existing laws, would form part of the true value at the port where the same may be entered, upon which the duties shall be assessed. And it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same may be imported or entered to cause the dutiable value of such imports to be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, in accordance with the provisions of existing laws; and if the appraised value thereof shall exceed, by ten per centum or more, the value so declared on the entry, then, in addition to the duties imposed by law on the same, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem on such appraised value: provided nevertheless, that under no circumstances shall the duty be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice value; any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding.

Sec. 9. And be it further enacted, That the deputies of any collector, naval officer, or surveyor, and the clerks employed by any collector, naval officer, surveyor, or appraiser, who are not by existing laws required to be sworn, shall, before entering upon their respective duties, or, if already employed, before continuing in the discharge thereof, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation faithfully and diligently to perform such duties, and to use their best endeavours to prevent and detect frauds upon the revenue of the United States; which oath or affirmation shall be administered by the collector of the port or district where the said deputies or clerks may be employed, and shall be of a form to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 10. And be it further enacted, That no officer or other person connected with the navy of the United States shall, under any pretence, import in any ship or vessel of the United States any goods, wares, or merchandise liable to the payment of any duty.

Sec. 11. And be it further enacted, That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby repealed.

Schedule A, one hundred per centum ad valorem.—Brandy, and other spirits distilled from grain or other materials; cordials, absynthe, arrack, curaçoa, kirschenwasser, liqueurs, marischino, ratifia, and all other spirituous beverages of a similar character.

Schedule B, forty per centum ad valorem.—Alabaster and spar ornaments, almonds; anchovies, sardines, and all other fish preserved in oil; camphor, refined; cassia, cloves, composition tops for tables or other articles of furniture; comfits, sweetmeats, or fruit preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses; currants, dates, figs, ginger root, dried or green; glass, cut; mace, manufactures of cedar-wood, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rose-wood, and satin-wood; nutmegs, pimento, prepared vegetables, meats, poultry, and game, sealed, or enclosed in cans, or otherwise; prunes, raisins, scagliola tops for tables or other articles of furniture; cigars, snuff, paper cigars, and all other manufactures of tobacco: wines, Burgundy, champagne, claret, Madeira, port, sherry, and all other wines, and imitations of wines.

Schedule C, thirty per centum ad valorem.—Ale, beer, and porter, in casks or bottles; argentine, alabatta, or German silver, manufactured or unmanufactured; articles embroidered with gold, silver, or other metal; articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever material composed, made up, or made wholly, or in part, by hand; asses' skins; balsams, cosmetics, essences, extracts, perfumes, pastes, and tinctures, used either for the toilet or for medicinal purposes; baskets, and all other articles composed of grass, osier, palm-leaf, straw, whalebone, or willow, not otherwise provided for; bay rum; beads, of amber, composition, or wax, and all other beads: benzoates, Bologna sausages; bracelets, braids, chains, curls, or ringlets, composed of hair, or of which hair is a component part; braces, suspenders, webbing, or other fabrics, composed wholly or in part of India-rubber, not otherwise provided for; brooms and brushes of all kinds; cameos, real and imitation, and mosaics, real and imitation, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; canes and sticks for walking, finished or unfinished; capers, pickles, and sauees of all kinds, not otherwise provided for: caps, hats, muffs, and tippets of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material; caps, gloves, leggings, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for; card-cases, pocket-books, shell-boxes, souvenirs, and all similar articles, of whatever material composed; carpets, carpeting, hearth-rugs, bed-sides, and other portions of carpeting, being either Aubusson, Brussels, ingrain, Saxony, Turkey, Venetian, Wilton, or any other similar fabric; carriages, and parts of carriages; cayenne pepper, cheese, cinnamon; clocks, and parts of clocks; clothing, ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up or manufactured, wholly or in part, by the tailor, sempstress, or manufacturer; coach and harness furniture, of all kinds; coal, coke, and culm of coal, combs of all kinds; compositions of glass or paste, when set; confectionary of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; coral, cut or manufactured; corks, cotton-cords, gimps, and galloons, court-plaster; crayons of all kinds; cutlery of all kinds; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations of precious stones, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; dolls, and toys of all kinds, earthen, china, and stone ware, and all other wares, composed of earthy or mineral

substances, not otherwise provided for ; epaulets, galloons, laces, knots, stars, tassels, tresses, and wings of gold, silver or other metal ; fans and fire-screens of every description, of whatever material composed ; feathers and flowers, artificial or ornamental, and parts thereof, of whatever material composed ; fire-crackers ; flats, braids, plaits, sparterre and willow squares, used for making hats or bonnets ; frames and sticks for umbrellas, parasols, and sun-shades, finished or unfinished ; furniture, cabinet and household ; ginger, ground ; glass, coloured, stained, or painted ; glass crystals for watches ; glasses or pebbles for spectacles ; glass tumblers, plain, moulded, or pressed, not cut or punted ; paintings on glass ; porcelain glass ; grapes ; gum benzoin, or Benjamin ; hair-pencils ; hat bodies of cotton ; hats and bonnets for men, women, and children, composed of straw, satin straw, chip, grass, palm-leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or other material not otherwise provided for ; hemp, unmanufactured ; honey ; human hair, cleansed or prepared for use ; ink, and ink-powder ; iron, in bars, blooms, bolts, loops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form, not otherwise provided for ; castings of iron, old or scrap iron ; vessels of cast-iron ; japanned ware of all kinds, not otherwise provided for ; jewellery, real or imitation ; jet, and manufactures of jet, and imitations thereof ; lead-pencils ; macaroni, vermicelli, gelatine, jellies, and all similar preparations ; manufactures of the bark of the cork-tree, except corks ; manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory, or vegetable ivory ; manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron ; lead, pewter, platina, silver, tin, or other metal, or of which either of those metals or any other, metal shall be the component material of chief value ; manufactures of cotton, linen, silk, wool, or worsted, if embroidered or tamboured in the loom, or otherwise, by machinery, or with the needle, or other process ; manufactures, articles, vessels and wares, of glass, or of which glass shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures, and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures, and articles of marble, marble paving tiles, and all other marble more advanced in manufacture than in slabs or blocks in the rough ; manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures, articles, and wares of papier maché ; manufactures of wood, or of which wood is a component part, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures of wool, of which wool shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for ; medicinal preparations, not otherwise provided for ; metallic pens, mineral waters, molasses, muskets, rifles, and other fire-arms ; nuts, not otherwise provided for ; ochres, and ochrey-earths, used in the composition of painters' colours, whether dry or ground in oil ; oil-cloth of every description, of whatever material composed ; oils, volatile, essential, or expressed, and not otherwise provided for ; olive-oil in casks, other than salad-oil ; olive salad-oil, and all other olive-oil, not otherwise provided for ; olives, paper ; antiquarian, demy, drawing, elephant, foolscap, imperial, letter, and all other paper not otherwise provided for ; paper-boxes, and all other fancy boxes ; paper envelopes, parasols and sun-shades, parchment, pepper, plated and gilt ware of all kinds, playing cards, plums, potatoes, red chalk pencils ; saddlery of all kinds, not otherwise provided for ; salmon, preserved ; sealing-wax ; sewing silks, in the gum or purified ; shoes composed wholly of India rubber, side-arms of every description, silk twist and twist composed of silk and mohair ; silver-plated metal, in sheets or other form ; soap : Castile, perfumed, Windsor, and all other kinds ; sugar of all kinds, syrup of sugar ; tobacco, unmanufactured ; twines and pack-thread, of whatever material composed ; umbrellas, vellum, vinegar, wafers, water-colours ; wood, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for, and fire-wood ; wool, unmanufactured.

Schedule D, twenty-five per centum ad valorem.—Borax or tinctal, Burgundy pitch, buttons and button-moulds of all kinds ; baizes, bockings, flannels, and floor-cloths, of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for ; cables and cordage, tarred or untarred ; calomel, and all other mercurial preparations ; camphor, crude ; cotton laces, cotton insertings, cotton trimming laces, cotton laces and braids ; floss silks, feather beds, feathers for beds, and downs of all kinds ; grass-cloth ; hair-cloth, hair-seating, and all other manufactures of hair not otherwise provided for ; jute, sisal grass, coir, and other vegetable substances, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures composed wholly of cotton, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures of goat's hair or mohair, or of which goat's hair or mohair shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures of worsted, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for ; matting, china, and other floor-matting and mats, made of flags, jute, or grass ; roofing slates, and slates other than roofing ; woollen and worsted yarn.

Schedule E, twenty per centum ad valorem.—Acids: acetic, acetous, benzoic, boracic, chromic, citric, muriatic, white and yellow, nitric, pyroligneous and tartaric, and all other acids of every description, used for chemical or medicinal purposes, or for manufacturing, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for ; aloes, alum, amber, ambergris ; angora, thibet, and other goat's hair or mohair, unmanufactured ; aniseed, animal carbon ; antimony, crude and regulus of ; arrow-root ; articles, not in a crude state ; used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for ; asafœtida, bacon,

bananas, barley, beef, bees'-wax ; berries, vegetables, flowers and barks, not otherwise provided for ; bismuth, bitter apples, blankets of all kinds ; blank books, bound or unbound ; blue or Roman vitriol, or sulphate of copper ; boards, planks, staves, lath, scantling, spars, hewn and sawn timber, and timber to be used in building wharfs ; boucho leaves, breccia, bronze liquor, bronze powder, butter, cadmium, calamine, cantharides ; caps, gloves, leggings, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, made on frames, composed wholly of cotton, worn by men, women, and children ; cassia buds, castor oil, castorum ; cedar-wood, ebony, granadilla, mahogany, rose-wood and satin-wood, unmanufactured ; chocolate, chromate of lead ; chromate, bichromate, hydriodate, and prussiate of potash ; cobalt, cocoa-nuts, coculus indicus ; copperas or green vitriol, or sulphate of iron ; copper rods, bolts, nails, and spikes ; copper bottoms ; copper in sheets or plates, called brazier's copper, and other sheets of copper, not otherwise provided for ; cream of tartar, cubebs, dried pulp, emery, ether, extract of indigo ; extracts and decoctions of logwood and other dye-woods, not otherwise provided for ; extract of madder, felspar, fig blue ; fish, foreign, whether fresh, smoked, salted, dried, or pickled, not otherwise provided for ; fish glue or isinglass, fish-skins, flaxseed, flour of sulphur, Frankfort black, French chalk ; fruit, green or ripe, not otherwise provided for ; fulminates or fulminating powders, furs dressed on the skin, gamboge, glue, green turtle, gunny cloth, gunpowder ; hair, curled, moss, sea-weed, and all other vegetable substances used for beds or mattresses ; hams, hats of wool ; hat bodies, made of wool, or of which wool shall be a component material of chief value ; hatters' plush, composed of silk and cotton, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value ; hemp-seed or linseed, and rape-seed oil, and all other oils used in painting ; Indian corn and corn-meal, ipecacuanha, iridium, iris or orris root, iron liquor, ivory or bone black, jalap, juniper berries, lac spirits, lac sulphur, lampblack, lard ; leather, tanned, bend or sole ; leather, upper of all kinds ; lead, in pigs, bars, or sheets ; leaden pipes, leaden shot, leeches, linens of all kinds, liquorice paste, juice, or root ; litharge, malt, manganese, manna ; manufactures of flax, not otherwise provided for ; manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for ; marble, in the rough, slab, or block, unmanufactured ; marine coral, unmanufactured ; medicinal drugs, roots, and leaves, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for ; metals, Dutch and bronze, in leaf ; metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for ; mineral and bituminous substances, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for ; musical instruments of all kinds, and strings for musical instruments of whip-gut or cat-gut, and all other strings of the same material ; needles of all kinds, for sewing, darning, or knitting ; nitrate of lead, oats and oatmeal ; oils : neatsfoot and other animal oil, spermaceti, whale, and other fish oil, the produce of foreign fisheries ; opium ; oranges, lemons, and limes ; orange and lemon peel ; osier or willow, prepared for basket-makers' use ; patent mordant ; paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for ; paper hangings and paper for screens or fire-boards ; paving-stones, paving and roofing tiles and bricks, pearl or hulled barley ; periodicals and other works in the course of printing and republication in the United States ; pine-apples, pitch, plantains ; plaster of Paris, when ground ; plumbago, pork, potassium, Prussian blue, pumpkins, putty, quicksilver, quills, red chalk, rhubarb ; rice or paddy, roll brimstone, Roman cement, rye and rye-flour ; saddlery, common, tinned, or japanned ; saffron and saffron-cake, sago ; sal soda, and all carbonates of soda, by whatever names designated, not otherwise provided for ; salts : Epsom, glauber, Rochelle, and all other salts and preparations of salts, not otherwise provided for ; sarsaparilla, sepia, shaddocks, sheathing paper ; skins, tanned and dressed, of all kinds ; skins of all kinds, not otherwise provided for ; slate pencils, smalts, spermaceti candles and tapers, spirits of turpentine, sponges, spunk, squills, starch, stearine candles and tapers ; steel, not otherwise provided for ; stereotype plates, still bottoms ; sulphate of barytes, crude or refined ; sulphate of quinine, tallow candles, tapioca, tar, thread laces and insertings, type metal ; types, new or old ; vanilla beans, verdigris ; velvet, in the piece, composed of cotton and silk, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value ; vermillion, wax candles and tapers ; whalebone, the produce of foreign fisheries ; wheat and wheat flour, white and red lead ; whiting, or Paris white ; white vitriol, or sulphate of zinc ; window glass, broad, crown, or cylinder ; woollen listings, yams.

Schedule F., fifteen per centum ad valorem.—Arsenic ; bark, Peruvian ; bark, Quilla ; Brazil paste ; brimstone, crude, in bulk ; codilla, or tow of hemp or flax ; cork-tree bark, unmanufactured ; diamonds, glaziers', set or not set ; dragon's blood ; flax, unmanufactured ; gold and silver leaf, mineral kermes ; silk, raw, not more advanced in manufacture than singles, tram and thrown, or organzine ; steel in bars, cast, shear, or German ;terne tin plates, tin foil ; tin, in plates or sheets ; tin plates, galvanized, not otherwise provided for ; zinc, spelter, or teutenegue, in sheets.

Schedule G., ten per centum ad valorem.—Ammonia ; annatto, Rancon or Orleans ; barilla ; bleaching powders, or chloride of lime ; books printed, magazines, pamphlets, periodicals, and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for ; building stones ; burr stones, wrought or unwrought ; cameos and mosaics, and imitations thereof, not set ; chronometers, box or ships', and parts thereof ; cochineal, cocoa, cocoa-shells ; compositions of glass or paste, not set ; cudbear ; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations there-

of, when not set ; engravings or plates, bound or unbound ; hemp-seed, linseed, and rape-seed ; fullers' earth : furs, hatters', dressed or undressed, not on the skin, ditto, undressed, when on the skin ; gold-beaters' skins, gum Arabic and gum Senegal, gum tragacanth, gum Barbary, gum East India, gum Jedda ; gum substitute, or burnt starch ; hair of all kinds, uncleaned and unmanufactured ; India rubber, in bottles, slabs, or sheets, unmanufactured ; indigo, kelp, lemon and lime juice, lime, maps and charts ; music and music paper, with lines, bound or unbound ; natron, nux vomica ; oils, palm and cocoa-nut ; orpiment ; palm-leaf, unmanufactured ; polishing stones, pumice and pumice stones ; ratans and reeds, unmanufactured ; rotten stone, sal ammonia ; saltpetre (or nitrate of soda, or potash) refined or partially refined ; soda ash ; sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol ; tallow, marrow, and all other grease and soap stocks and soap stuffs, not otherwise provided for ; terra japonica, or catechu ; watches, and parts of watches ; watch materials of all kinds, not otherwise provided for ; woad or pastel.

Schedule H., five per centum ad valorem.—Alcornoque ; argol, or crude tartar ; bells, when old, or bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured ; berries, nuts, and vegetables, used exclusively in dyeing or composing dyes, but no article shall be classed as such that has undergone any manufacture ; brass, in pigs and bars ; brass, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured ; Brazil wood, and all other dye-wood, in sticks ; bristles ; chalk, not otherwise provided for ; clay, unwrought ; copper, in pigs or bars ; copper, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured ; flints ; grindstones, wrought or unwrought ; horns, horn-tips, bones, bone-tips, and teeth, unmanufactured ; ivory, unmanufactured ; ivory nuts, or vegetable ivory ; kermes, lac dye ; lastings suitable for shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons, exclusively ; madder, ground ; madder root ; manufactures of mohair cloth, silk twist, or other manufacture of cloth suitable for the manufacture of shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons, exclusively ; nickel, nut-galls ; pearl, mother-of ; pewter, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured ; rags, of whatever material ; raw hides and skins of all kinds, whether dried, salted, or pickled, not otherwise provided for ; safflower ; saltpetre or nitrate of soda, or potash, when crude ; seedlac, shellac, sumac ; tin in pigs, bars, or blocks ; tortoise and other shells, unmanufactured ; turmeric ; waste, or shoddy ; weld ; zinc, spelter, or teutenegue, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for.

Schedule I., exempt from duty.—Animals imported for breed ; bullion, gold, and silver ; cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities ; coffee and tea, when imported direct from the place of their growth or production, in American vessels, or in foreign vessels entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage, and other charges ; coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands, imported from the Netherlands in the same manner ; coins, gold, silver, and copper ; copper ore ; copper, when imported for the United States mint ; cotton ; felt, adhesive, for sheathing vessels ; garden seeds, and all other seeds, not otherwise provided for ; goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, exported to a foreign country, and brought back to the United States in the same condition as when exported, upon which no drawback or bounty has been allowed : Provided, That all regulations to ascertain the identity thereof, prescribed by existing laws, or which may be prescribed by the secretary of the treasury, shall be complied with ; guano ; household effects, old and in use, of persons or families from foreign countries, if used abroad by them, and not intended for any other person or persons, or for sale ; junk, old ; models of inventions and other improvements in the arts : Provided, That no article or articles shall be deemed a model or improvement which can be fitted for use ; oakum ; oil, spermaceti, whale, and other fish, of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of such fisheries ; paintings and statuary, the production of American artists residing abroad, and all other paintings and statuary : Provided, The same be imported in good faith as objects of taste, and not of merchandise ; personal and household effects (not merchandise) of citizens of the United States dying abroad ; plaster of Paris, unground ; platina, unmanufactured ; sheathing copper, but no copper to be considered such, and admitted free, except in sheets forty-eight inches long and fourteen inches wide, and weighing from fourteen to thirty-four ounces the square foot ; sheathing metal ; specimens of natural history, mineralogy, or botany ; trees, shrubs, bulbs, plants, and roots, not otherwise provided for ; wearing apparel in actual use, and other personal effects not merchandise, professional books, implements, instruments and tools of trade, occupation, or employment of persons arriving in the United States : Provided, That this exemption shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment, or for sale.

An Act establishing a Warehousing System, and to amend an Act entitled "An Act to provide Revenue from Imports, and to change and modify existing Laws imposing Duties on Imports, and for other purposes."

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the twelfth section of the act entitled "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other

purposes," approved the 30th day of August, 1842, is hereby amended so as hereafter to read as follows:—(Sec. 12.) And be it further enacted, That on and after the day this act goes into operation, the duties on all imported goods, wares, or merchandise, shall be paid in cash: Provided, that in all cases of failure or neglect to pay the duties within the period allowed by law to the importer to make entry thereof, or whenever the owner, importer, or consignee shall make entry for warehousing the same in writing, in such form and supported by such proof as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, the said goods, wares, or merchandise, shall be taken possession of by the collector, and deposited in the public stores, or in other stores to be agreed on by the collector or chief revenue officer of the port and the importer, owner, or consignee, the said stores to be secured in the manner provided for by the first section of the act of the 20th day of April, 1818, entitled "An act providing for the deposit of wines and distilled spirits in public warehouses, and for other purposes," there to be kept with due and reasonable care, at the charge and risk of the owner, importer, consignee, or agent, and subject at all times to their order upon payment of the proper duties and expenses, to be ascertained on due entry thereof for warehousing, and to be secured by bond of the owner, importer, or consignee, with surety or sureties, to the satisfaction of the collector, in double the amount of the said duties, and in such form as the secretary of the treasury shall prescribe: Provided, that no merchandise shall be withdrawn from any warehouse in which it may be deposited in a less quantity than in an entire package, bale, cask, or box, unless in bulk; nor shall merchandise so imported in bulk, be delivered, except in the whole quantity of each parcel, or in a quantity not less than one ton weight, unless by special authority of the secretary of the treasury. And in case the owner, importer, consignee, or agent of any goods on which the duties have not been paid, shall give to the collector satisfactory security that the said goods shall be landed out of the jurisdiction of the United States, in the manner now required by existing laws relating to exportations for the benefit of drawback, the collector and naval officer, if any, on an entry to re-export the same, shall, upon payment of the appropriate expenses, permit the said goods, under the inspection of the proper officers, to be shipped without the payment of any duties thereon. And in case any goods, wares, or merchandise, deposited as aforesaid, shall remain in public store beyond one year, without payment of the duties and charges thereon, then said goods, wares, or merchandise, shall be appraised by the appraisers of the United States, if there be any at such port, and if none, then by two merchants designated and sworn by the collector for that purpose, and sold by the collector at public auction, on due public notice thereof being first given, in the manner and for the time to be prescribed by a general regulation of the treasury department; and at said public sale, distinct printed catalogues descriptive of said goods, with the appraised value affixed thereto, shall be distributed among the persons present at said sale; and a reasonable opportunity shall be given before such sale, to persons desirous of purchasing, to inspect the quality of such goods; and the proceeds of said sales, after deducting the usual rate of storage at the port in question, with all other charges and expenses, including duties, shall be paid over to the owner, importer, consignee, or agent, and proper receipts taken for the same: Provided, that the overplus, if any there be, of the proceeds of such sales, after the payment of storage, charges, expenses, and duties as aforesaid, remaining unclaimed for the space of ten days after such sales, shall be paid by the collector into the treasury of the United States; and the said collector shall transmit to the treasury department, with the said overplus, a copy of the inventory, appraisement, and account of sales, specifying the marks, numbers, and descriptions of the packages sold, their contents, and appraised value, the name of the vessel and master in which and of the port or place whence they were imported, and the time when, and the name of the person or persons to whom said goods were consigned in the manifest, and the duties and charges to which the several consignments were respectively subject; and the receipt or certificate of the collector shall exonerate the master or person having charge or command of any ship or vessel, in which said goods, wares, or merchandise were imported, from all claim of the owner or owners thereof, who shall, nevertheless, on due proof of their interest, be entitled to receive from the treasury the amount of any overplus paid into the same under the provisions of this act: Provided, that so much of the fifty-sixth section of the general collection law of the 2nd of March, 1799, and the thirteenth section of the act of the 30th of August, 1842, to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes, as conflicts with the provisions of this act, shall be, and is hereby repealed, excepting that nothing contained in this act shall be construed to extend the time now prescribed by law for selling unclaimed goods: Provided, also, that all goods of a perishable nature, and all gunpowder, fire-crackers, and explosive substances, deposited as aforesaid, shall be sold forthwith.

Sec. 2. And be it further enacted, that any goods, when deposited in the public stores in the manner provided for in the foregoing section, may be withdrawn therefrom and transported to any other port of entry, under the restrictions provided for in the act of the 2nd of March, 1799, in respect to the transportation of goods, wares, and merchandise from one collection district to another, to be exported with the benefit of drawback; and the owner of such goods so to be withdrawn for transportation, shall give his bond with sufficient sureties, in double the amount of

the duties chargeable on them, for the deposit of such goods in store in the port of entry to which they shall be destined, such bond to be cancelled when the goods shall be re-deposited in store in the collection district to which they shall be transported: Provided, that nothing contained in this section shall be construed to extend the time during which goods may be kept in store, after their original importation and entry, beyond the term of one year.

Sec. 3. And be it further enacted, That if any warehouse goods shall be fraudulently concealed in or removed from any public or private warehouse, the same shall be forfeited to the United States; and all persons convicted of fraudulently concealing or removing such goods, or of aiding or abetting such concealment or removal, shall be liable to the same penalties which are now imposed for the fraudulent introduction of goods into the United States; and if any importer or proprietor of any warehoused goods, or any person in his employ, shall by any contrivance fraudulently open the warehouse, or shall gain access to the goods, except in the presence of the proper officer of the customs, acting in the execution of his duty, such importer or proprietor shall forfeit and pay, for every such offence, 1000 dollars. And any person convicted of altering, defacing, or obliterating any mark or marks which have been placed by any officer of the revenue on any package or packages of warehoused goods, shall forfeit and pay, for every such offence, 500 dollars.

Sec. 4. And be it further enacted, That the collectors of the several ports of the United States shall make quarterly reports to the Secretary of the Treasury, according to such general instructions as the said secretary may give, of all goods which remain in the warehouses of their respective ports, specifying the quantity and description of the same; which returns, or tables formed thereon, the Secretary of the Treasury shall forthwith cause to be published in the principal papers of the city of Washington.

Sec. 5. And be it further enacted, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby authorised to make, from time to time, such regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as may be necessary to give full effect to the provisions of this act, and secure a just accountability under the same. And it shall be the duty of the secretary to report such regulations to each succeeding session of Congress.

An Act for the Allowance of Drawback on Foreign Merchandise imported into certain Districts of the United States from the British North American Provinces, and exported to Foreign Countries.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That any merchandise imported from the British North American provinces, adjoining the United States, which shall have been duly entered, and the duties thereon paid or secured according to law, at either of the ports of entry in the collection districts situated on the northern, north-eastern, and north-western frontiers of the United States, may be transported by land or by water, or partly by land and partly by water, to any port or ports from which merchandise may, under existing laws, be exported for the benefit of drawback, and be thence exported with such privilege to any foreign country: Provided, that such exportations shall be made within one year from the date of importation of said merchandise, and that existing laws relating to the transportation of merchandise entitled to drawback from one district to another, or to two other districts, and the due exportation and proof of landing thereof, and all regulations which the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe for the security of the revenue, shall be complied with.

The *North-eastern Boundary Treaty* fixes the limits between New Brunswick, Canada, and the United States. Provides that the produce of the ceded territory brought down the River St. John, shall be treated when imported into the United Kingdom, as if it were the produce of a British possession.

The Oregon Treaty.

ART. I. From the point on the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, where the boundary laid down in existing treaties and conventions between the United States and Great Britain terminates, the line of boundary between the territories of the United States and those of her Britannic Majesty shall be continued westward along the said forty-ninth parallel of north latitude to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver's Island; and thence southerly, through the middle of the said channel, and of Fuca's Straits, to the Pacific Ocean: Provided, however, that the navigation of the whole of the said channel and straits south of the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude remain free and open to both parties.

ART. II. From the point at which the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude shall be found to

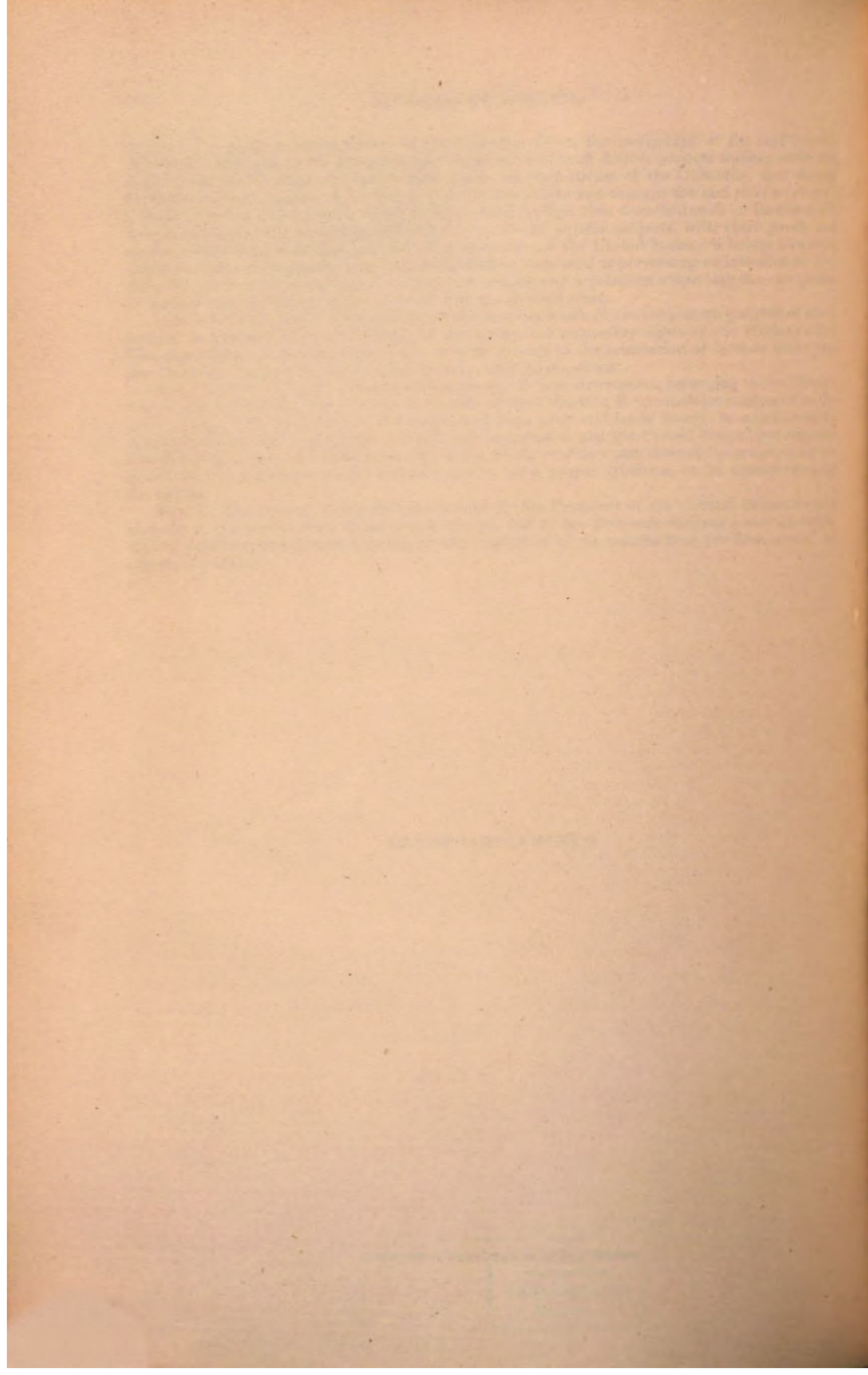
intersect the great northern branch of the Columbia River, the navigation of the said branch shall be free and open to the Hudson's Bay Company, and to all British subjects trading with the same, to the point where the said branch meets the main stream of the Columbia, and thence down the said main stream to the ocean, with free access into and through the said river or rivers; it being understood that all the usual portages along the line thus described shall in like manner be free and open. In navigating the said river or rivers, British subjects, with their goods and produce, shall be treated on the same footing as citizens of the United States; it being, however, always understood that nothing in this article shall be construed as preventing, or intended to prevent, the government of the United States from making any regulations respecting the navigation of the said river or rivers, not inconsistent with the present treaty.

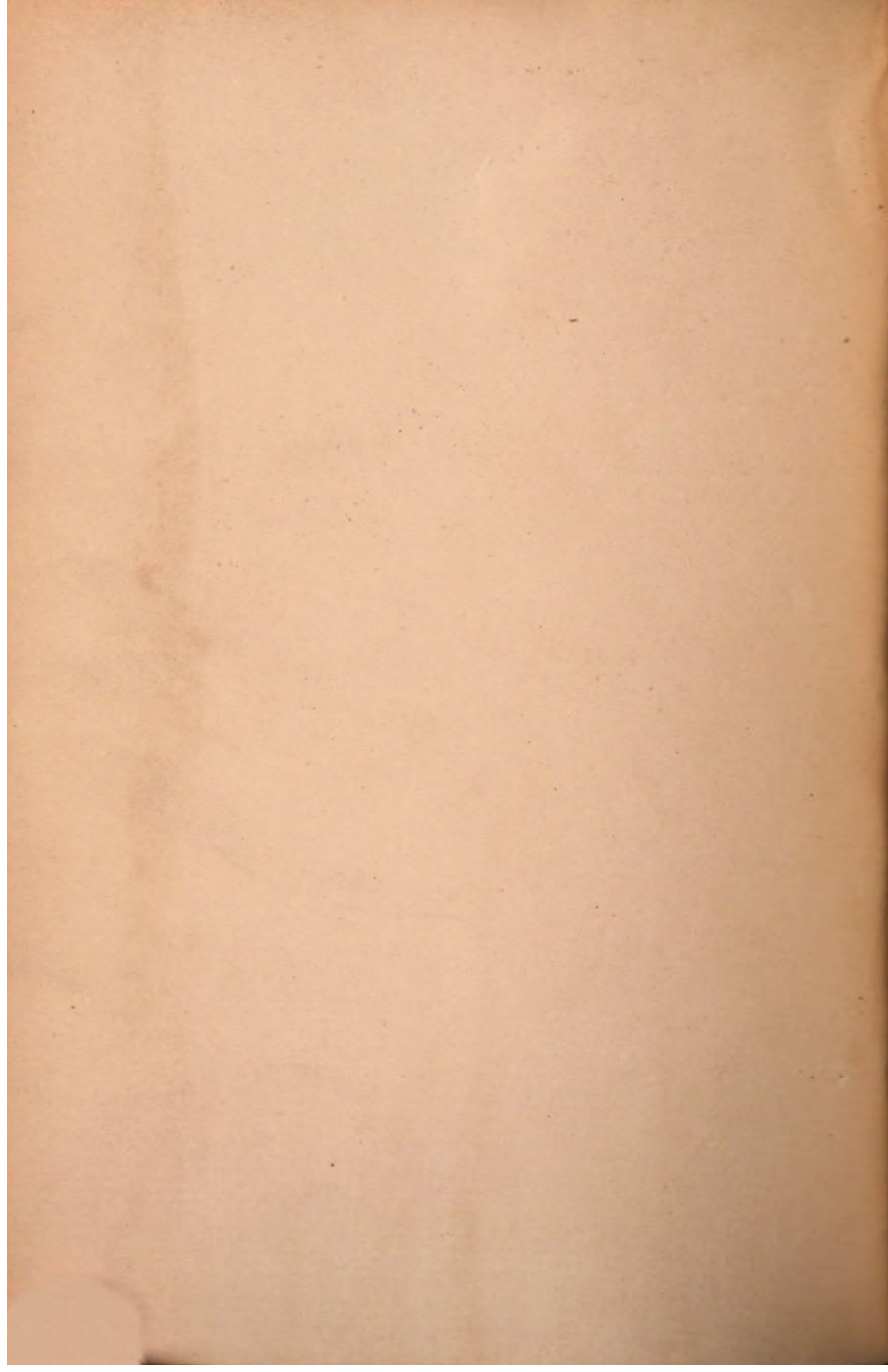
ART. III. In the future appropriation of the territory south of the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, as provided in the first article of this treaty, the possessory rights of the Hudson's Bay Company, and of all British subjects who may be already in the occupation of land or other property lawfully acquired within the said territory, shall be respected.

ART. IV. The farms, lands, and other property, of every description, belonging to the Puget's Sound Agricultural Company, on the north side of the Columbia River, shall be confirmed to the said company. In case, however, the situation of those farms and lands should be considered by the United States to be of public and political importance, and the United States' government should signify a desire to obtain possession of the whole, or of any part thereof, the property so required shall be transferred to the said government, at a proper valuation, to be agreed upon by the parties.

ART. V. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the senate thereof, and by her Britannic Majesty; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, at the expiration of six months from the date hereof, or sooner, if possible.

END OF SUPPLEMENTS.









MacGregor, John

The progress of America from the discovery by Columbus to the year 1846

Bd.: 1,2

London 1847

Am.a. 1420-1,2

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